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Motivation for High School Students to Read:Differences among Student Perceptions and Differences between Student and Teacher Perceptions

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MOTIVATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS TO READ: DIFFERENCES AMONG STUDENT PERCEPTIONS AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STUDENT AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS

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MOTIVATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS TO READ:
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MOTIVATION FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS TO READ:
DIFFERENCES AMONG STUDENT PERCEPTIONS AND DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN STUDENT AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS

Angela Gunter May 2011 187 Pages

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Many high school teachers are unaware of, or mistaken about, specific strategies and practices that actually motivate their students to read, and that what motivates one group of students may not motivate another. Although content-area instructors may not have been trained in teaching reading strategy and may feel as though teaching reading is not their job, it is an expectation that could largely be met by the implementation of motivational strategies.

This exploratory study utilized the expectancy theory of motivation and was conducted to determine which strategies and practices would be most motivational for high school students to read. In a survey created by the researcher, student participants were identified as having high or low self-efficacy and high or low value of reading. Also included in the survey were 27 motivational strategies and practices garnered from previous studies and research among all age groups. Finally, an open-ended question was included to determine the most motivational strategy. Four student groups were identified (those with high and low self-efficacy as readers and those with high and low value for reading) to correspond to aspects of the expectancy theory of motivation, as

were the most motivational strategies and practices for each group. Student responses were also compared to teacher responses to the same survey to determine how closely aligned the teachers were with their students in regard to motivation for reading.

Data from both qualitative and quantitative analyses demonstrated that in fact there were differences in motivation to read both between high school teachers and their students and among the four designated groups of students. Significant differences between the mean scores of teachers and students were revealed in 15 of the 27 motivational strategies and practices included in the study. Among the most revealing results was that teachers seem to have underestimated their students' willingness to read. Significant differences among the means of students in four groups were revealed in an astounding 22 of the 27 strategies and practices listed on the survey, indicating that a one-size-fits-all approach to reading motivation is not effective.

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Education is not the filling of a pail

but the lighting of a fire.

~William Butler Yeats

Unlike elementary and middle grade instructors who understand they must teach social skills and general rules of acceptable behavior in addition to their course content, some high school instructors are simply unaware that delivery of only their course content is not sufficient to meet the goal of a secondary teacher—preparing students for college and/or entry into the job market. Along with subject-area content, multiple literacies must also be addressed in high school classrooms, with the most basic (and arguably the most important) strands of literacy being reading ability and comprehension. However, high school teachers in all content areas do not routinely teach reading strategies explicitly to their students.

Many secondary school teachers do not feel adequately trained to teach reading comprehension at the high school level, noting their assertion that reading is (or should be) taught in the primary grades (Hall, 2005). A commonly accepted notion is that once the necessary decoding skills are learned by the student, the teaching of reading is complete. However, this is not actually the case. As students progress through school, their personal and intellectual requirements progress as well. The needs of the adolescent reader are far different than those of primary students (Moore, Bean, Birdyshaw, & Rycik, 1999). Thorndike (1974) notes that for adolescents, reading is no longer primarily a decoding issue or a simple set of skills, but rather a reasoning process. In addition to the superficial comprehension involved in merely assigning literal meaning to words, a

real understanding of the text involves the integration of the meanings of the words with perceptions of readers (Fisher, Frey, & Lapp, 2009). The recursive nature in the building of literacy skills is not always recognized by instructors who fail to understand the ongoing process of continually developing skill sets for students to become effective readers of increasingly divergent and difficult material encountered throughout high school (Franzak, 2006). Many secondary level content teachers expect that students have already mastered advanced reading strategies and interpretive skills and assume they will employ those strategies and skills without the content teacher's overt instruction of how to do so (Eckert, 2008).

In addition, high school teachers specialize in subject areas such as math, science, or physical education. Because the curricular structure is different in high school than in elementary school settings in which teachers are expected to teach multiple content areas, even if they recognize the importance of developing students who can read effectively, these academic content area teachers do not always believe that the teaching of reading to their high school students is within the realm of their responsibilities, instead assuming that the teaching of reading falls to the English department (Hall, 2005); however, each high school course includes content-related vocabulary and texts for which literacy skills must be incorporated for full understanding of subject-specific concepts. As adolescents transition to content- or discipline-specific learning, often teaching literacy strategies unique to the content or format are necessary, but rarely explicitly taught (Lapp, Flood, & Farnan, 2004; Sturtevant & Linek, 2003).

Because of the increase in volume and complexity of the content being introduced, the integration of reading strategy instruction is not the focus of secondary content teachers who find themselves strapped for time to cover their content (Eckert, 2008). However, it is precisely because of this increase in complexity of content-area texts that students need more, rather than fewer, guided experiences in interpreting them (Brozo & Flynt, 2008). Although the teaching of reading includes some specific strategies that may not have been taught to pre-service teachers in all content areas at all levels, instructors are largely unaware that they can make great strides in their students' reading by providing the proper motivation (Gambrell, 1996).

Wang (2004) notes that instructors who have effectively incorporated the concepts of motivational theory into their teaching strategies have realized "a highly enthusiastic and studious learning atmosphere [that] blanket[s] the students in the class" (p. 418). Simply surveying students regarding their preferences could advance the perception that their teachers value their input, creating a climate of cooperation. Viewing the role as a collaborator in the instructional process, provider of inspiration, and promoter of high expectations for students to learn rather than a mere deliverer of information can transform a teacher into an instructional leader and students into lifelong learners capable of and excited about effectively reading interesting and challenging texts (Guthrie, 2008).

Renninger, Hidi, and Krapp (1992) report a strong connection between students' interest in texts and their comprehension of texts. Similarly, Ainley, Hidi, and Berndorff (2002) found that students' topical interests in texts was related to persistence and

learning. Of course, reading ability depends largely on students' verbal skills; however, research demonstrates that motivational variables also play a significant role (Aarnoutse & Schellings, 2003; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Bandura, 2001; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007).

Significance of the Problem

The implementation of specialized reading strategies and study of motivational factors to increase reading among adolescents has been largely overlooked for decades. Until relatively recently, the focus on teaching reading strategies and addressing readers' difficulties has, in fact, been on the elementary-aged student. *A Nation at Risk*, a 1983 report issued by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, was among the earliest official reports bringing attention to the need to address not only primary but adolescent literacy. Findings indicated that "about 13 percent of all 17-year-olds in the United States [could] be considered functionally illiterate…nearly 40 percent [of high school students] cannot draw inferences from written material, [and] only one-fifth can write a persuasive essay" (p. 11). In 1985, the National Assessment of Education Progress [NAEP] issued its 1984 *Report Card,* which revealed that there had been "no real improvement" in higher-level reading skills between 1971 and 1984 (p. 10). The 2005 NAEP reading scores for twelfth-grade students dropped from 80 percent rating a proficient score in 1992 to 73 percent in 2005 (National Council of Teachers of English, 2007). Most recently, the 2009 NAEP reading scores for high school seniors were reported at 74 percent proficient, and although an increase occurred in the last four years, the scores are still lower than in 1992 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2010).

A review of national policy and funding reveals that the focus of the nation on teaching instructional strategies for reading and addressing readers' difficulties has been placed primarily on the elementary-aged student. Moore et al. (1999) notes that the Commission of Adolescent Literacy of the International Reading Association reports,

> Adolescents entering the adult world in the 21st century will read and write more than at any other time in human history. They will need advanced levels of literacy to perform their jobs, run their households, act as citizens, and conduct their personal lives. They will need literacy to cope with the flood of information they will find everywhere they turn. They will need literacy to feed their imagination so they can create the world of the future. In a complex and sometimes even dangerous world, their ability to read will be crucial (p. 3).

As a consequence of the previously established focus on primary acquisition of reading skill, numerous studies have been conducted among preschool and elementary students; however, there exists a much smaller body of research regarding the teaching of reading to middle school students and even less relating to those in high school. Oldfather and Dahl (1994) found that as students progress through the educational process, intrinsic motivation to read decreases. Their research suggests that one of the reasons for this decline is that as students move from the self-contained, student-centered settings of primary school to environments with interaction among more students and a mostly teacher-centered setting, their opportunities for self-expression and working one-on-one with instructors decreases. Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) suggest that students

become more adept at understanding evaluative feedback as they progress through school and that this awareness provides them with feelings of inadequacy in relation to others. Their findings indicate that the socially competitive nature inherent in middle school settings create more focus for students on attaining extrinsic rewards such as high grades and less focus on sparking individual student interest, which would foster intrinsic motivation. Research has found that students who experience high intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy are relatively active readers and high achievers (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

Problem Statement

The problem addressed in this study is that many high school teachers are unaware of, or mistaken about, specific strategies and practices that actually motivate their students to read, and that what motivates one group of students may not motivate another. Content-area teachers are often unaware that although they may not have been trained in teaching reading strategy and may feel as though teaching reading is not their job, it is an expectation that could largely be met by the implementation of motivational strategies. Because national reading scores of proficient readers among high school students have dropped and continue to remain in the lower 70 percent range, it is critical that high school teachers focus on providing reading experiences that will increase their students' reading abilities.

Understanding how to motivate students is a crucial skill that high school teachers should aspire to attain; however, instructors often miss opportunities to capitalize on the strengths of those they teach by not tapping in to what excites them. Although it may be

time-consuming, numerous connections could be made to all content areas that could spark a genuine interest within students (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000). It is understandable with all the responsibilities placed on instructional leaders to "cover" a wide breadth of content preparing students for mandatory accountability testing that they may be reluctant to implement all the suggestions offered by experts on motivation (Lenters, 2006), but it is possible that they could adapt a few of the most highly recommended into their classroom management strategies or teaching techniques. Once teachers understand the benefits of their efforts, both in student performance and attitude, they will likely be motivated to incorporate more, adjusting procedure and effectively changing the culture of their classrooms (Hall, 2005). Like their primary and middle school counterparts, high school teachers can learn of the importance of the provision of proper motivation, understanding that the delivery of their content alone is insufficient.

Significance of the Study

The study is significant because although research has been conducted to determine what motivates students to read, the vast majority of the literature focuses on elementary and middle grade students. Addressing the dearth of motivation to read among high school students is essential in order to affect change in trends for literacy rates of the nation's youth (Alvermann, 2002). Because young men and women currently graduating from colleges are subject to an ever-increasing global workforce, this decreasing literacy rate must be addressed in order for them to be competitive in their job markets.

Issues arise, however, when a definition of motivational factors to read is not the same for students as it is for their teachers. Few studies have been conducted to determine differences in teacher and student perceptions regarding reading and/or motivation, particularly at the high school level. In a 2005 study of reading motivation involving seventh- and ninth-grade students and their English teachers, Kasten and Wilfong found that scores measuring all student participants for favorable attitudes toward independent reading before their treatment (Book Bistro) were reported at 3.2% and after the treatment at 96.8%, compelling evidence that providing motivation for reading in the classroom can change perceptions and consequently, performance. Their survey also measured teacher perceptions of student attitudes toward independent reading before the treatment and reported it as 98% favorable, considerably contrasting with the 3.2% actually discovered among the tested student population (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). This disparity in teacher and student perceptions demonstrates a real problem that must be addressed in order to inform instructors in their delivery and practice regarding motivational strategies to read; if teachers are this unaware of their students' perceptions, it is no wonder many students are not motivated and consequently fail to achieve. The results of this study comparing teacher perceptions with student perceptions regarding strategies and practices they find motivational to read will provide a much-needed perspective that will benefit both populations.

High school teachers need to be able to determine what will motivate each of their students to read. The first step in this differentiation of teaching is discovering perceptions particular student groups possess in regard to reading. Those who

intrinsically value reading may respond very differently to a particular incentive than those who lack an intrinsic value for reading. Those who genuinely feel it is unlikely for them to reach a particular performance goal may be reluctant to even attempt it. This study provides a practical method administrators can use to determine gaps in understanding of motivational strategies and practices between their unique teacher and student populations and a survey instrument teachers can utilize in their classrooms to identify student groups as well as what motivates them.

Research Questions

The research questions guiding this study are as follows:

Research Question 1: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read?

Research Question 2: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers?

Research Question 3: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading?

Operational Definitions

Adolescent literacy: Generally considered a set of skills for reading, writing, speaking, listening, observing and interacting with text and non-text items (charts, graphs, pictures, etc.) for students in grades four through twelve (National Council of Teachers of English, 2007).

Comprehension (in reading): The rapid recognition of words and the integration of information into a meaningful whole (Aarnouse & Schellings, 2003).

Content area teachers: Teachers who teach subjects that are required for students to graduate (not electives): English, math, science, and social studies.

Motivation: Those personal characteristics that influence activities and achievements of individuals in the form of objectives, convictions, and needs (Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000).

Nonreaders: Students who are capable of reading but chose not to do so (Gambrell, Palmer, Codling, & Mazzoni, 1996).

Readers: Students who are wide and frequent readers who often explore new territory through text and who are intrinsically motivated to read for the knowledge and enjoyment it provides (Guthrie & Cox, 2001).

Self-efficacy (in reading): Individuals' assessments of how well they think they can accomplish a particular reading task (Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks, & Perencevich, 2004).

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

The problem addressed in this study is that many high school teachers are unaware of, or mistaken about, specific strategies and practices that actually motivate their students to read, and that what motivates one group of students may not motivate another. Content-area teachers are often unaware that although they may not have been trained in teaching reading strategy and may feel as though teaching reading is not their job, it is an expectation that could largely be met by the implementation of motivational strategies. When teachers do not employ motivational strategies, they miss an opportunity to engage students in reading, ultimately contributing to the decreasing rates of literacy in high schools (National Council of Teachers of English, 2007).

The study is significant because although research has been conducted to determine what motivates students to read, the vast majority of the literature focuses on elementary- and middle- grade students. In addition, a disparity in teacher and student perceptions demonstrates a real problem that must be addressed in order to inform instructors in their delivery and practice regarding motivational strategies to read.

This study will be conducted by surveying students and teachers using an instrument in which participants rank motivational strategies and practices using a five-point Likert scale to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read?

Research Question 2: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers?

Research Question 3: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading?

A rationale for the inclusion of the four distinctions in the grouping of the students in the research questions (those with high self-efficacy as readers, those with low self-efficacy as readers, those with a high value for reading, and those with a low value for reading), matching them to corresponding aspects of expectancy theory is demonstrated. In addition, a portion of the chapter is devoted to exploring competing theories of motivation, comparing them to expectancy theory, and justifying the selection of expectancy as the theoretical foundation of the study design.

Finally, results of research in expectancy theory applied in educational settings with elementary, middle school, high school, and college students are detailed. The studies included reveal strategies and practices that have been demonstrated to motivate the various levels of students and were used in the development of the survey instrument for the study.

Motivational Theory: Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory of motivation is categorized as a process theory of motivation because of its emphasis on individual perceptions and the interactions that follow as a consequence of personal expectations, whereas theories categorized as content theories of motivation focus on internal attributes of an individual (Isaac, Zerbe, & Pitt, 2001). Expectancy theory, a cognitively oriented mode of behavior, maintains that "the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectancy that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome) and on the value or attractiveness (or valence) of that consequence (or outcome) to the actor" (Lawler, 1994, p. 57). Over the years there have been various modifications proposed to the original theory, including a variation by Vroom which initially dealt primarily with motivation in the work place. However, although it has not been applied extensively in the area, expectancy theory is also particularly well-suited for the educational setting as well. The outcome, which is student performance or perception in a classroom setting, can be affected by the valence and consequence, both of which the teacher has the power to highlight or alter depending on the preferences of his or her group of students.

According to Vroom's model (sometimes referred to as VIE theory for valence, instrumentality, and expectancy), one action could result in numerous combinations of outcomes. Vroom called for "multiplying the valence of each outcome times the strength of the expectancy that the act will lead to the attainment of the outcome, and then taking the algebraic sum of all the resulting products" (Lawler, 1994, p. 59). This distinction is important because it assumes that motivation does not depend on merely one reward or

incentive, as is often thought to be the case by those who lead people. Vroom's version complicates matters, informing that simply providing a pay increase will not be an effective motivational strategy for all employees, and that simply offering the reward of an A on a report card will not be an effective motivational strategy for all students. He also notes that a person will be motivated to perform well only when the attractiveness of the situation and the expected outcome are considered higher for a good performance than for a bad one (Lawler, 1994).

Factors Involved in Expectancy Theory

In order for expectancy theory to apply to particular groups and situations, several factors must be considered including the clarity of the expectation and outcome, the concepts of self-esteem and self-efficacy of those involved, the construct of interest as it applies to students, and personality, particularly in regard to perceptions of personal control of outcomes of situations.

Clarity.

When attempting to predict the probability of a person's accomplishment of a performance utilizing expectancy theory, a number of factors must be considered, with one of the most essential being a clear understanding of expectations. Although performance expectations are based in reality, interpretation (or misinterpretation) of the situation is an important factor to consider for educational leaders. If an expectation is misunderstood, the likelihood of success is low. Behling and Starke (1973) pointed out that rather than an actual outcome, a more "crucial factor is the individual's perception of the satisfaction or dissatisfaction to be derived from working at a particular level" (p.

374). An inaccurate situational understanding can be corrected as people are highly influenced by others' views, particularly when they perceive the other has more experience and less emotional involvement in the situation. Gained knowledge through experience is also a determining factor as people's expectations become more accurate the more they perform a task. People's past experiences influence their outlook regarding probability of performance as well. In an effort to enhance motivation, educators can change work situations; the design of the assignment can influence expectancies and therefore, outcomes (Lawler, 1994).

The more teachers understand their students' perceptions and past experiences, the more effective they can be in clarifying their expectations. Quick (1988) used the premises of expectancy theory to create a usable guide for managers and leaders, which would include teachers. He noted that the lack of use of what he suggests is a simple theory constitutes a boon for consultants, but a loss of productivity for managers of people. Outlining the major premises of the theory, Quick created five steps he asserted leaders should follow to increase motivation. One step was for leaders to clearly define expectations, correlating to the premise in the theory that people must have an accurate perception of what the goal is or they may be reluctant to attempt to achieve it. Lack of adequate completion of tasks can appear to be laziness, incompetence, or decreased work ethic, when in actuality, it may be that teachers and students simply hold divergent expectations. Similarly, Isaac et al. (2001) created a list entitled "Issues to Address Concerning Followers Regarding Expectancy Theory" (p. 21). On the list in connection with the effort-performance portion of the theory, the researchers included the question of

whether the leader and the follower both understand what constitutes acceptable/desirable performance.

Self-esteem.

"A crucial component of people's self-image is the beliefs they have concerning their response capabilities and their value and effectiveness" (Lawler, 1994, p. 69). Self-esteem is generally defined as confidence in, and realistic respect for, oneself. It encompasses these beliefs of self-image and is, therefore, also an important factor in prediction of performance. Although self-esteem is considered to be generally stable, efforts can be made in order to increase it in those with low self-esteem. These efforts are prudent as motivating those with low self-esteem can increase the likelihood of better self-prediction of success; those with high self-esteem are more realistic regarding expectations of performance.

Quick (1988) and Isaac et al. (2001) note the importance of making tasks achievable and assigning work that can be realistically accomplished. Taking these steps can help ensure success, boosting self-esteem. Followers must perceive an actual chance at being able to attain the goals set by their leaders in order to be successful. Quick (1988) recommends incorporating mutually agreed-upon evaluation methods/instruments, allowing negotiations between leaders and followers, adopting flexible schedules, and adjusting assignments to capitalize on the followers' past experiences and expertise. In an academic setting, Brozo and Flynt (2008) found that self-esteem could be increased by generating interest in new content; as students become more interested in content, they

apply themselves more, increasing the likelihood of successful experiences in reading and learning, and in turn, elevating their self-esteem.

Self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy refers to the perceived ability one has to perform a task at a specified level and is thought to influence choices of activities, amounts of effort devoted, persistence in action, and ultimately, achievement (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007). Providing a model with which students can identify could lead to increasing self-efficacy; if students observe a peer performing an action which results in success, they may attempt to perform the action as well, particularly if they perceive value in the activity. In a study of fourth- and fifth-grade students, researchers delivered three types of instruction: process goal, in which students were taught how to use steps modeled to them to answer questions about what they read, product goal, in which students were asked to try to answer questions about what they read, and general goal instruction, in which students were simply encouraged to do their best. Posttest results revealed that the students who were taught the process goal technique with modeling not only demonstrated higher reading comprehension, but they judged self-efficacy higher than the students taught the product goal and general goal techniques, suggesting to the researchers that the increase in comprehension skills caused the increase in self-efficacy (Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007).

A survey instrument called the Reader Self-Perception Scale (RSPS) was developed by Henk and Melnick (1995) has been widely used to assess self-efficacy in the area of reading. Lynch (2002) studied students and their parents, all of whom were

involved in a family literacy project in Canada. Along with a questionnaire for the parents and a standardized reading test for the children, the researcher administered the RSPS to 66 students who were eight or nine years old. Findings included significant results relating student self-perceptions as readers to their reading achievement. Development of self-efficacy in students is widely recognized as an important area that teachers should focus on to increase reading achievement and student learning in general (Jinks & Lorsbach, 2003; Nes Ferrara, 2005; Schunk, 2003).

Interest.

A general definition of interest is the feeling of a person whose attention, curiosity, and concern is particularly engaged by something. Although some researchers have labeled the construct of *interest* as a commonly used term for intrinsic motivation, Schiefele (1991) set out to define it more specifically than it had been defined by Dewey and James in their early twentieth-century research. In his four studies including male university students in Germany and both male and female tenth-grade students in the United States, the researcher first categorized subjects as "high-interest" students or "low-interest" students by using a questionnaire to determine feelings and valences toward the topic being presented. A different type of comprehension test representing a particular level of comprehension—recognition, free recall, and open-ended question--was administered to each of the four groups after they had read the provided texts. The studies provided evidence that interest in specific topics was important in reading comprehension. Further, it was shown that interest motivated readers to venture beyond

simple memorization and recall to drawing inferences, making connections, and searching for meaning in text (Schiefele, 1991).

Personality.

Closely related to interest is an individual's personality, generally recognized as the complex of behavioral, temperamental, emotional, and mental attributes. In association with application of expectancy theory, the pertinent attribute of personality is perceived control over situations experienced. If a person believes he has much control over the consequences received, he will generally be better motivated than does a person who believes he has little control over what happens to him; a clear connection between performance and outcome is realized (Lawler, 1994). A person who feels he has little control will be less likely to be motivated because he does not recognize such a strong connection between his performance and the outcome. Lawler drew on data that delineate large segments of American society by those who believe they have control over their outcomes versus those who do not: "Businessmen and college students tend to be high on internal control, while convicts and ghetto youths tend toward external control" (p. 73). Realizing the relationship between performance and outcome is important for organizational and educational leaders. Not only does the personality and behavior of leaders affect motivation of workers and students, but so does the manner in which compensation and grades are awarded and the way tasks and learning objectives are designed.

Expectancy theory relies on the effectiveness (or ineffectiveness) of extrinsic motivators, as opposed to intrinsic motivators, and operates under the assumption that

individuals will act in a rational manner to choose actions that will result in positive outcomes. Isaac et al. (2001) suggested that expectancy theory could be utilized by potential leaders because those whom they lead can be motivated by external rewards. Using an analogy of a piece of string as an employee or student, the researchers reasoned that the string would more effectively be pulled in the right direction rather than pushed. Teachers and organizational leaders, they suggested, must simply determine what their followers perceive as desirable and provide that stimulus appropriately, effectively pulling the employee or student toward what they (both the leaders and followers) perceive as successful performance.

Comparison of Expectancy Theory With Competing Motivational Theories

The expectancy theory of motivation has been extensively employed in work-place settings, but not as widely used in educational settings. In fact, none of the prevailing theories of motivation have been applied comprehensively in the area of student education as instructional leaders have traditionally tended to view motivation as a fixed personality trait rather than a variable capable of being altered. Therefore, a review of competing motivational theories is appropriate in considering the most fitting theory to apply for the study of motivating high school students to read.

Drive theory.

Because he noted a divergence in productivity among employees who were provided what was assumed to be equal motivation (the chance to earn the same amount of monetary compensation), Lawler (1994), in his study of motivation in work organizations, attempted to answer the questions of what determines particular outcomes

people find motivational as well as what actions they will perform in order to meet those outcomes. He focused on two theories, Hull and Spence's drive theory and Lewin, Tolman, and Rotter's expectancy theory, mainly because other theories were not "sufficiently developed to take into account all the phenomena with which an acceptable theory must deal" (p. 53). Both drive and expectancy theories concern similar concepts and make predictions based on desired outcomes and the behaviors that lead to them. The main difference, Lawler noted, was that drive theory concerned events of the past while expectancy theory was more oriented to future events.

Both drive and expectancy theories, and Vroom's variation on expectancy theory in which he defined valence as attractiveness of an outcome and expectancy as the likelihood that behaviors lead to particular outcomes (Lawler, 1994), present a problem in that no differentiation is made between the intention of an action and the actual completion of that action. Lawler posed examples in which both of these could result in either positive or negative (not desired) performance, illuminating the weakness in the theories. However, research indicating that "verbal statements of attitudes about (1) the importance of rewards and (2) how rewards are obtained are directly related to performance" (p. 60) seems to lend credence to expectancy theory in regard to predictability that drive theory lacks. Although they questioned the validity of some of the underlying assumptions and posited that often individuals make decisions that occasionally violate necessary premises, Behling and Starke (1973) noted in their review of available literature that expectancy theory, particularly Vroom's model, is currently the prevailing theory regarding motivation.

Lawler (1994) noted that various studies regarding performance-based pay fit into the structure of expectancy theory, since it allows for expectancy to form in a variety of ways. Some findings indicated that employees can develop behavior-outcome associations based on nothing more than watching others work or attempting a task only a single time. Evidence also indicated that motivation differed depending on how the relationship between the pay and performance was defined: workers were more motivated when they were told the pay depended upon performance than when they were told it did not. Leaders tend to operate on the assumption that desire to be productive is innate and therefore an action that all workers will find commendable. However, Lawler posited that the opposite is true—that people are not inherently productive or non-productive; he suggested that if they are likely to gain to the same benefit for being less productive as those who are highly productive, people will be lower producers. When applied to the field of education, Lawler's translation would be that students are not innately productive in the classroom and that they would likely not work harder if the outcome—grade—were the same with less work.

Social identity theory.

A competing theory relating to motivation was studied by van Knippenberg (2000). He focused his review of studies on what he considered to be the most important aspect affecting performance—motivation—using social identity theory. Citing various areas of organizational behavior research to which social identity theory has been applied, the researcher explained the theory as identification with certain social groups that "leads individuals to perceive themselves in terms of characteristics they share with

other members of their in-groups—their shared social identity—rather than in terms of the idiosyncratic characteristics that differentiate them from other individuals—their personal identity" (p. 358). He went on to state that even though individuals identify with particular groups, that does not necessarily mean that they will always act in a manner that reflects the group norms. In addition, even when individuals are able to identify with a group, they may not be cognizant of the fact that they are members of the group, and "group membership only affects attitudes and behavior to the extent that the individual is 'made aware' of the membership in the group" (p. 359).

Noting that identification can motivate members of a group to work for the group's best interest, van Knippenberg (2000) suggested that this motivation can affect work performance, provided that members (a) actually recognize their membership within the group, (b) understand that positive work performance is an actual goal of the group, and (c) have the capabilities required to accomplish the desired performance. His study of empirical data included only research that focused on identification as defined by the social identity theory; therefore, he found few studies, particularly in comparison to the number of studies published utilizing expectancy theory: only one dealing with identification and work motivation and one dealing with identification and contextual performance (van Knippenberg, 2000). Although correlations were found between some areas of work motivation and social identity theory, there exists overwhelmingly more empirical data regarding expectancy theory as a predictor of motivation, suggesting it remains the premier overarching theory regarding workplace motivation. However, the

concept of social identity is a valuable construct that could help in explaining results of expectancy theory outcomes.

Self-categorization theory.

Closely related to social identity theory is self-categorization theory, which suggests that people "categorize themselves either as individuals or members of social groups, and that the relative salience of a particular self-category has distinct implications for their behavior" (Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000, p. 321). The concept is centered around the idea that workers are no longer driven to work because of the necessity to satisfy low-level needs or simple individual financial reward; rather, organizations will more likely realize their goals when the workplace satisfies its employees' social needs. Haslam et al. (2000) found that workers were more likely to identify themselves as members of an organization when it allowed for positive self-definition and when the company as a whole focused on external competition rather than internal competition.

Like social identity, self-categorization has not been widely studied and tested, and although it cannot replace expectancy theory as a valid, stand-alone predictor of motivation in the workplace, it can offer understanding of a particular concept in motivation to organizational managers. In addition, these theories could help address the criticism that expectancy theory ignores non-cognitive elements in choice such as personality and emotion. When used in conjunction with expectancy, social identity and self-categorization could help address a short-coming of expectancy theory alone—the issue of increasing motivation within single individuals rather than across whole groups.

Expectancy Theory in Education

In reviewing available literature, it is clear that the vast majority of application of expectancy theory has been placed on the work force, a segment of the population for which a productive population is important. However, theories of motivation have also been applied in educational settings, although sparingly. Many studies in instructional literature fail to recognize motivation as a key factor, instead acknowledging it as a personality trait or independent variable that cannot be altered by educators. Therefore, motivation is not often formally studied as a dependent variable that can be altered to increase learning. The result of this understanding is that educators have much more empirical data regarding strategies to facilitate learning than strategies to enhance motivation (Hancock, 1995). The educational studies in motivation that do exist, however, reveal motivation to be an important aspect of learning to investigate.

Academic behavior based on valence.

Building on Vroom's expectancy theory using valence and force models and creating a connection to study of motivation in education, Geiger and Cooper (1996) performed a study which included 87 college accounting students in a public university. Each student was given case studies and instructed to make decisions based on various combinations of the case study subject's current grade, expectancy of success (chances that increased effort would result in a higher grade), and valence (attractiveness) of second-level outcomes, which included increased GPA, superior job performance after college, and personal satisfaction.

The first hypothesis was supported by the study: the valence model accurately predicted the attractiveness of increasing the course grade from a "B" to an "A." Measurement of the influence of the second-level outcomes indicated that increasing GPA was the most significant factor in motivation, followed by increased job performance, with the least important factor being personal satisfaction; although personal satisfaction ranked lowest, it still demonstrated a high degree of attractiveness, indicating that all three were highly attractive motivators (Geiger & Cooper, 1996).

Another hypothesis tested by the researchers was that the valence of an outcome would be more motivation to exert effort than the expectation of achieving the outcome. Results of *t* tests indicated a highly significant overall dominance of valence as a motivational factor, which Geiger and Cooper (1996) explain is consistent with the earlier research. Implications for instructors in regard to this finding include not emphasizing only one favorable outcome of effort in the course, but featuring many to increase the likelihood that at least one of the outcomes discussed coincides with the desires of those in the class.

The final hypothesis tested in the study resulted in the demonstration that increased expectancy of success led to significantly larger increases in effort among those moving from a low grade to a moderate grade than from those moving from a moderate grade to a high grade. Geiger and Cooper (1996) pointed out that this finding was also in line with prior research and that practical implications for instructors include an intentional raising of student expectations for improvement throughout a course. Further, the researchers posited that their findings indicate that instructors have the ability to

increase motivation among their student populations by providing opportunities for, encouragement of, and relevant reasons for students to expend effort in their class work.

Academic behavior based on personality.

Initially it was accepted that in expectancy theory all individuals would use rational behaviors in determining desirability and outcomes. It is now understood that various factors play a role in the actions of individuals, including environmental and internal forces. Drawing on Fishbein and Ajzen's 1975 and 1980 studies of theory of reasoned action, Miller and Grush (1988) hypothesized that individuals who are "both high in private self-consciousness and low in self-monitoring" would demonstrate a "high correspondence between expectancies and behavior but low correspondence between norms and behavior" (p. 109). Participants in the study included 226 full-time college students enrolled in introductory psychology courses. They were asked to complete personality scales to rate private self-consciousness and self-monitoring and were then given questionnaires regarding their expectancies, their perceived norms, and their behavior in relation to their school work. Social norm and behavior questionnaires were also administered.

As was predicted, those who were aware of their own expectancies yet relatively unaware of others' expectations demonstrated "high expectancy-behavior and low norm-behavior correspondence" and those who were unaware of their own expectancies yet highly aware of those of others demonstrated "high norm-behavior and low expectancy-behavior correspondence" (Miller & Grush, 1988, p. 116). The researchers noted the importance of this study in demonstrating the significance of these personality

characteristics (self-monitoring and self-consciousness) on the relationship between expectancies and behaviors. Further, they stated that their results, obtained because of the refinement in design inspired by Fishbein and Ajzen's earlier studies, increased the validity of the theory which had previously been subject to implications that it only predicted behaviors in some, as behaviors in most were motivated by irrational and random choices. Pointing to one of the most important conclusions to be drawn from the study, Miller and Grush wrote, "The present results suggest that expectancy theory should be revised to view humans as social as well as rational beings" (p. 119). What may have previously been regarded as irrationality could, in fact, have been the predisposition of some to weigh more heavily social norms or their personal consequences than was deemed by some to be rational. This information is significant for instructors who may be attempting to rationalize their students' behaviors and utilize valence to influence desired outcomes for their students.

Academic behavior based on effort.

In 1983, Kennedy and Elliott set up a study using expectancy theory with multiattribute utility (MAU) theory among students enrolled in two sections of introductory organizational behavior classes at a major university. The researchers measured effort by examining the number of hours participants logged as study time for selected courses that they all shared. Outcomes presented to respondents included extrinsic ones: securing employment, a place in graduate school, and approval of others. Those considered intrinsic included amount of learning, amount of interest, and provision of best effort.

Results regarding effort were consistent with expectancy theory in that the higher the expected gain from low effort, the less the expected effort: four hours of effort on the part of participants was a better predictor than ten hours of effort; however, some negative correlations were found which the researchers contend point to the inadequacies of the single-alternative model used with expectancy analysis, and the MAU theory was found to actually be more accurate when using the difference model correlations, particularly among participants with ten hours using intra-subject analysis (Kennedy & Elliott, 1983). In their discussion, the researchers admitted that the methods of analysis were very similar and that some contend the only difference is the title of the theories. They also conceded that the MAU process is much more labor intensive than expectancy analysis.

In their discussion, the researchers noted that certainly not all cases would merit the complexity of this combination of theories. In many study situations, the results provided by expectancy theory alone are sufficient to gain understanding of the participants and their environment. In an academic setting, it has been demonstrated that student effort can be altered by the perceived attractiveness of the outcome and an adequate self-efficacy, making utilization of expectancy theory alone an appropriate measure.

Relation of Motivation to Reading Achievement

Although it is a widely accepted assumption among those who are experienced in teaching reading that motivation is an integral factor in student success with comprehension, in its 2000 report, the National Reading Panel concluded that there was

not a substantial amount of formal research proving that "encouraging reading… has a beneficial effect on reading achievement" (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000, p. 3-28). Since that report was issued, however, critics of the panel's findings have attempted to analyze former studies and undergo new ones in order to more strongly prove the relationship. In 2007, Morgan and Fuchs performed a review of existing research, selecting only peer-reviewed empirical studies that evaluated the relationship between reading skill level and either self-competency or goal orientation among pre-school and young school-age children. After an exhaustive search of the available literature in databases and books, as well as a manual search of journals dating back to 1975, 15 studies were found to meet the researchers' requirements of reliability and germaneness. Results from six of the selected studies suggest that regardless of the type of measure (direct observations, standardized assessments, teacher ratings or participants' self-reports), young children's reading skills correlated with concurrent measures of reading motivation (Morgan & Fuchs, 2007). In ten of the studies, a relationship between skill and motivation was observed; however five studies suggested that early differences in reading skill precede later differences in reading motivation, while another five studies indicated a reverse relationship: early differences in motivation preceded later differences in reading skills (Morgan & Fuchs, 2007). Reviewed as a whole, all 15 studies, although to varying degrees, suggested correlation of reading skill to motivation. Although these researchers seemingly justified the National Reading Panel's assertion regarding the dearth of literature proving a link between reading

motivation and skill, what studies are published seem to indicate that the connection does, in fact, exist.

Even if they are aware of the correlation between motivation and reading skill, high school teachers may justify their students' non-interest or poor performance in reading by citing that motivation to read is an intrinsic trait that cannot be taught in a 50-90 minute block for 90-180 days per year to students who have not already acquired the habit. Although it is true that some motivation is indeed intrinsic, studies have demonstrated that teachers, their strategies, and classroom procedures can have an effect on the motivation for their students to read. Wigfield (1997) concluded that there are a variety of reading motives that can influence engagement and performance including reading curiosity, involvement, importance, recognition, and other extrinsic motivations. These motives are obviously not all intrinsic, not specific only to reading, and they can be adapted to any subject area curriculum at any level, including high school.

Although motivation has been found to be domain-specific (Wigfield et al., 2004; Wigfield, 1997), meaning that students may have varying levels of motivation in the different subjects offered in a high school curriculum, by incorporating cross-curricular lessons and activities, student motivation may also cross domains.

Studies of Motivation Among Elementary-Aged Students

Motivation based on teaching strategy.

In their 2001 study that included 28 fifth-grade students, Guthrie and Cox conducted research regarding reading engagement and its effect on motivation. The unit of study featured hands-on activities designed to motivate students to increase their

knowledge of the subject through reading called Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI) by the investigators. Upon completion of the study, the CORI group was compared to students in another classroom who began the year at a comparable reading level on a standardized test. The researchers utilized the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) developed by Guthrie in 1995. CORI students were found to demonstrate more curiosity, involvement in reading, preference for challenging books, social exchange and competitiveness. The comparison students were more motivated by grades and recognition than were the CORI students (Guthrie & Cox, 2001). Also, the CORI group gained dramatically in their ability to comprehend informational text, interpret literary text, and search for information in multiple books.

In 2004, Guthrie and his colleagues refined his previous design and implemented CORI in eight third-grade classrooms and Strategy Instruction (SI) in 11 third-grade classrooms in schools with comparable demographics (Wigfield et al., 2004). In the CORI classrooms, teachers had been trained in the integration of their science curriculum with reading strategies in order to foster intrinsic motivation for reading as well as comprehension strategies while the SI teachers were trained only in the teaching of reading comprehension strategies. Students in both groups were tested before and after the 12-week instructional periods in reading comprehension and motivation (Wigfield et al., 2004), and statistically significant increases were reported among the CORI student group in the areas of intrinsic motivation of reading due to curiosity and preference for challenge while none were present in the SI student group.

Building on his previous studies, Guthrie et al. (2006) attempted to identify a relationship of specific teacher strategies that motivated students and led to an increase in reading comprehension. In the study, 98 third-grade students in four classrooms from two different schools with similar demographics were taught with the CORI method; however, the number of stimulating tasks was numerous in one group and few in the other. After the 12 week treatment period, multiple regression analysis demonstrated higher reading comprehension and motivation among the instruction group with the larger number of stimulating activities. However, when controlled for student motivation, the number of stimulating tasks did not directly increase reading comprehension (Guthrie et al., 2006). Despite the lack of direct effect, the number of stimulating tasks increased motivation for reading, which was associated with increased reading comprehension on standardized tests (Guthrie et al., 2006), creating a strong case, at least, for the positive effect of motivation on reading comprehension.

Research similar to the 2001 CORI study was conducted in The Netherlands by Aarnoutse and Schellings (2003) with 14 teachers and 427 third-grade students. Six classrooms that incorporated specific development of reading strategies and reading motivation were compared with seven classrooms that did not. Subjects were administered reading comprehension and strategy tests along with reading and motivation questionnaires pre- and post-treatment. Findings included that the purposeful teaching of specific reading strategies had a significant effect on student's knowledge and use of strategies; however, in the area of reading comprehension, no significant difference was demonstrated between the control classes and experimental classes. The researchers were

also interested in motivation to read, and the subjects in the experimental group demonstrated higher reading motivation after the treatment than the control group.

Motivation based on student choice and interest.

Other researchers realized the vital importance of providing motivation for reading as well. Gambrell et al. (1996) developed an instrument to assess motivation called the Motivation to Read Profile (MRP). The survey was administered to 330 third- and fifth-grade students from four schools in two school districts. The MRP included both a reading survey designed to assess participants' self-concept as a reader and level of value placed on reading as well as a conversational portion which was administered by an interviewer. In the interviews, subjects were asked open-ended questions regarding their habits and interests in different types of reading (Gambrell et al., 1996). Results demonstrated that reading achievement test scores were positively correlated with mean scores on student self-concept measure of reading ability.

Edmunds and Bauserman (2006) performed a similar study on 831 pre-kindergarten through fifth-grade students and 37 teachers in an elementary school in a midsized U.S. city. Three fourth-grade teachers were asked to rate reading and motivation levels of their students. Then researchers randomly selected three students from each category to participate in the Conversational Interview, a portion of Gambrell et al.'s (1996) MRP. Approaches relating to the teaching of reading were identified as influential in motivating students in all categories. Allowing students to choose their own texts positively influenced reading motivation, as did the provision of various genres and subject matter in order to appeal to their personal interests, particularly in the area of

narrative texts. Expository texts were most motivational when students perceived they could learn new information from them. Student access to texts was also, therefore, an important factor.

Recommendations of the researchers included not only providing a variety of books for students, but determining the interests of the students at the beginning of the year and creating a customized selection of books based on student preferences (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). For their study regarding voluntary summer reading with groups of third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade elementary students, White and Kim (2008) used a book matching process in which a computer algorithm merged data from files containing Lexile scores and preference categories to select books that students would enjoy reading.

Motivation based on parental involvement.

The final motivational approach revealed from the Edmunds and Bauserman study dealt with the active involvement of those who interacted with the students. Parents (particularly mothers), teachers, and other peers who either read books aloud to the students or discussed the content or structure of the books provided motivation for them to read.

White and Kim (2008) found similar results. Their study utilized classroom teachers to model comprehension strategies and fluency practice with students at the end of the school year and then sent these students one book that had been matched to them for eight weeks of a summer. A second group of students were simply sent the matched books, and a third were not taught the strategies or sent books. During the summer,

parents of the students who received books were prompted to encourage their children to read the books, listen to the students read aloud a 100 word section, and then return a postcard with comments to the researchers. The group of students who were provided with instruction by their teachers before the program began, with encouragement, and interaction from their parents throughout the program scored higher (although just barely below the level to be considered statistically significant at the 0.05 level) on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills test, which measures comprehension and vocabulary, than those were simply provided with the matched books (White & Kim, 2008).

These studies among elementary age students provide insight into the strategies and practices that motivate the developing reader. The instructors involved in the studies were trained, willing to, and expected to teach specific reading strategies to the students. This is not always the case among the middle and high school teachers; therefore, studies of this age group are often structured differently than elementary school studies.

Studies of Motivation Among Middle School- and High School-Aged Students

International study of student motivation.

Although many studies have been conducted to demonstrate that motivation to read correlates to increases in reading comprehension among pre-school and elementary students, fewer studies have been reported regarding middle school and high school groups. A study by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) conducted in 2000 was designed to measure students' performance in areas including reading, willingness and ability to engage in self-regulated learning, and motivation to learn in participating

countries (Artelt, 2005). Among the research questions were ones that focused on student learning: Can extrinsic and intrinsic aspects of motivation be differentiated in different cultural settings? Do both motivational aspects (intrinsic and extrinsic) operate in the same way? Why are motivated students at an advantage in terms of learning and performance? Are they more successful because they make more use of effective learning strategies? (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2002).

The study included 110,991 questionnaires intended to measure (in part) student interest in reading and motivation in general from a representative sample of 15-year-old students from 26 countries. Questions were taken from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) (Garcia & Pintrich, 1995). Results demonstrated a statistically significant positive relationship between interest in reading and reading literacy at the individual level (Artelt, 2005). Interest in reading was found to have high predictive power in regard to reading performance among all countries with the exceptions of Brazil and Mexico.

An assumption held by the researchers was that "motivated students perform better than their peers because, among other reasons, they are equipped with more effective learning strategies and use these strategies more frequently" (Artelt, 2005, p. 243). As expected, results demonstrated that students who took a self-evaluative perspective to learning (e.g. checking whether they remember what they have already learned, asking themselves what they do not yet understand—also called control strategies by the researchers) tended to report much higher learning motivation. There was also an indication that students invested more effort and were especially willing to

use control strategies when they were motivated to learn to improve their career prospects.

Implications for American students, educators, and policy makers.

The PISA was administered again in 2003, and soon after, the International Reading Association (IRA) assembled a task force to focus on implications of the 2000 and 2003 assessments related specifically to variables that had the most significant impact on reading performance. In an effort to inform teachers, administrators, and policy makers in the United States of the importance of the findings in their respective fields, members of the task force highlighted the need for comparison of American students to those of other countries as they will be competing in an increasingly global society (Brozo, Shiel, & Topping, 2007).

Review of the PISA revealed a concept of literacy that incorporates much more than the traditional notion of simple reading and writing. Fifteen-year-old students were assessed on their abilities to apply the knowledge and skill they currently possessed to "analyze, reason, and communicate effectively as they pose, solve, and interpret problems in a variety of situations" (Brozo et al., 2007, p. 305). Comparison of test scores with questionnaire responses regarding reading habits and attitudes reveal that engagement is among the most significant aspects of reading achievement. PISA describes the components of engagement in reading as the frequency with which students read a diversity of texts, read for pleasure, and their attitude toward reading in general (Brozo et al., 2007). Researchers found that those from low socioeconomic groups who were highly engaged performed as well as those from high socioeconomic groups who

were similarly engaged, lending credence to the importance placed on engagement of readers. Although females outperformed males in reading overall, those males who reported high engagement levels outperformed females who reported low engagement levels. In almost every participating country, higher performance in reading achievement correlated with high engagement reports (Brozo et al., 2007). Particularly in secondary schools in which reading achievement and motivation tend to wane, the benefits of fostering reading engagement are evident in the task force's findings. In order to increase achievement, motivation for students to engage with texts must occur.

Correlation of motivation with standardized test scores.

Seeming to provide support for the IRA's findings, Mucherah (2008) found strong connections between middle school student subsets in several areas of motivation and high performance on state-mandated standardized reading tests. His study examined responses from Guthrie's (1995) Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) from 388 sixth- and eighth-grade students from two public middle schools and compared them with results of the Indiana Statewide Testing for Educational Progress (ISTEP) which assesses academic achievement in the areas of mathematics and reading. Guthrie's MRQ was originally designed for primary students, but was redesigned for a middle-school sample for the purposes of this study, posing questions in separate categories of motivation including social, intrinsic and extrinsic goals, and self-efficacy.

MANOVA and regression analyses of the MRQ and ISTEP cut scores concluded that particular areas of motivation and amount of reading in which students engage were strong predictors of academic achievement, with the strongest connections in the areas of

recognition and competition, followed closely by challenge and aesthetics as well as challenge and efficacy. Other statistically significant correlations were established between challenge and curiosity and recognition and importance of reading (Mucherah, 2008). Perhaps one of the most important findings to present from this study is that challenge was the most often cited aspect of motivation that correlated to high standardized test scores among the middle school student groups.

Application of adolescent motivation to read profile.

Other researchers have used survey instruments to measure middle and high school students' reading motivation. The Adolescent Motivation to Read Profile (AMRP) is an adaptation of Gambrell et al.'s MRP by Pitcher et al. (2007) to accommodate adolescent students. The instrument was developed by an 11-person team of current and retired instructors. Revisions of the original survey included the use of language that appealed to and was appropriate for teens and the addition of more questions regarding the use of electronic resources, school projects that students enjoyed, and what student chose to read and write independently of assigned work. Eleven researchers administered the AMRP reading survey and conversational interviews to teens from a variety of settings. Of the 384 adolescents surveyed, nearly 100 were interviewed. Early adolescents (grades 6-8) accounted for 43.8%, middle adolescents (grades 9-10) comprised 35.2%, and late adolescents (grades 11-12) made up 21% of the sample (Pitcher et al., 2007). Findings included that females had significantly higher scores on surveys (overall motivation to read) than males, males scored higher on the survey in their early teens, but their scores decreased in their late teens, and females

across all groups valued reading more than males. Other findings demonstrated that at all levels of instruction, family members, peers, and the ways teachers engage students in reading was an important factor in motivation, as was the provision of student choice regarding texts.

Possibly, one of the most relevant themes for high school teachers to surface from the interview portion revealed discrepancies between students' views of themselves as readers in school and out of school, most likely related to the students' admission of frequent use of multiliteracies including magazines, newspapers, and various electronic sources of reading such as fan-fiction, chat rooms, and gaming sites that are not traditionally categorized as academic (Pitcher et al., 2007). The researchers' recommendations based on their findings suggest the need for content area teachers to be aware that their engagement of students in those multiple literacies could present opportunities for motivation and that students appreciate the incorporation of a wide variety of resources, including electronic ones, that relate to their interests.

Motivation based on authentic assignments.

Offering authentic opportunities in school for middle and high school students to engage in reading that they enjoy outside of school can have a profound effect on readers who would be considered at-risk students. Alvermann et al.'s 2007 study involved 60 seventh, eighth, and ninth graders, 90% of whom tested into the lowest quartile of their city's district-wide standardized reading exam, and all but two of whom reported that they were disinterested in reading. The group was split in half with 30 involved in an out-of-school media club that met weekly and compensated $10 per week for completing

weekly logs regarding their reading activities. The researchers broadened the traditional definition of literacy to include magazines, comic books, television programs, video games, music, graffiti, email, and other Internet-based texts (Alvermann et al., 2007). Although no significant differences were noted between the groups with regard to the use of materials from the public library, the number of literacy practices those who attended the media club engaged in was significantly larger than that of the control group. Most surprising, however, was the fact that there was no statistical significance in the amount of time the groups spent engaging in the literacy practices outside of school, particularly because they had described themselves as reluctant readers. The groups reported reading an average of 29.4 and 33.9 minutes per day respectively, contrasting with earlier studies in which students reported 7.2-15 minutes per day (Alvermann et al., 2007).

Instructional implications revolve around teacher method for various assignments and types of texts. When adolescents are assigned what is considered traditionally academic reading, they are strongly influenced by teacher modeling of comprehension strategies. The enthusiasm of teachers also impact student motivation to read (Pitcher et al., 2007).

Motivation based on student choice and interest.

A related study was conducted by a teacher researcher, a ninth-grade English instructor who was interested in investigating what boys and young men preferred to read most, what types of print and non-print texts engaged the young male imagination, and how expansion in knowledge of this sort could be used to enhance pedagogy. His study was inspired by a case in which a young man admitted he had been an advanced reader

but preferred to read only science fiction. When his English teacher limited his writing to only two reports on *Star Wars*, the young man revealed that he became "turned off to reading," citing the "schoolish" literature forced upon him (Cavazos-Kottke, 2005). The researcher also cited studies in which interviewers revealed that boys who read voraciously refused to call themselves readers, dividing their literacy lives between "schoolish" reading and "the real world."

Cavazos-Kottke cites John Dewey and his argument that students should be the center of the curriculum, espousing "true scaffolding learning on students' personal interests, passions, or extracurricular strengths, capitalizing on their funds of knowledge, and drawing connections between students' vernacular literacies and the dominant literacy of the sanctioned curriculum" (p. 181). He proposes that the way to improve student motivation is to recognize contemporary views of defined literacy practice, noting that in most cases, the only difference between [classrooms] today and the Middle Ages is that the books are no longer chained to the desks (Cavazos-Kottke, 2005).

In order to accommodate what he perceived to be the needs of his students to increase motivation, Cavazos-Kottke (2005) developed a protocol of self-selected reading for his students, with the immediate goal of increasing the amount his students were actually reading. He noted that his requirement for self-defined goals in individual reading contracts developed through conferencing with each student was beneficial in increasing not only volume of reading, but quality and appreciation. Addressing students' individual needs and providing them autonomy yielded the most positive results based on personal interviews with the high school students.

Motivation based on assignment structure and environment.

In a similar effort to increase motivation for reading among adolescents, a faculty advisor and her assistant designed an action research study after discussion with numerous teachers regarding students' "hatred" for their school's independent reading program (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). The study group involved a ninth-grade English teacher who taught 62 students in four different English classes and a teacher of a seventh-grade honors reading classroom with 22 students. A survey was administered to 24 practicing teachers in an effort to discover current independent reading practices in their schools. The participating students also completed surveys to assess their current school-related independent reading habits.

The teachers and researchers then designed the Book Bistro based on the "poetry café" model in which students are encouraged to freely discuss literature purely for enjoyment rather than the traditional expectation of accountability for "correct" answers (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). Student reading was self-selected, discussion was student-led, and interaction was authentic, similar to book discussions that would take place among adult readers. Accountability took the form of a tri-fold brochure-like paper on which the reader would record information about the book in one panel and would be reviewed by his or her neighbor on each side. Four Bistros were held, and students completed post-session surveys. Also, class focus group interviews took place after each event to discover students' thoughts and reaction to the strategy. Results proved positive, with the teacher reporting that 95% of her students viewed the Bistros favorably (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005).

The second participating teacher also provided individual choice regarding books for independent reading. Students prepared index cards with information including book title, author, genre and two sentence plot summary. Questions regarding their books to guide presentations included: "What do students need to know about your book? What touched you about the book? Would you want to keep this book in your personal library? Does the book remind you of anything you have learned or talked about in school? Does this book lend itself to being made into a movie? How does this book relate to your life?" (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). Students were allowed snacks in class and presented in a relaxed atmosphere within small groups with music playing in the background. Peer reviews were completed, which the teacher reported were constructive and complete; she used them in part to assign a numeric grade (because she was required to by her school). As in the first group, students in this group also provided positive feedback regarding the experience.

Motivation as defined by teachers versus motivation as defined by students.

Scores measuring all student participants for favorable attitudes toward independent reading before their treatment (Book Bistro) were reported at 3.2% and after the treatment at 96.8%, revealing evidence that providing motivation for reading in the classroom can change perceptions and consequently, performance. Their survey also measured teacher perceptions of student attitudes toward independent reading before the treatment and reported it as 98% favorable, considerably contrasting with the 3.2% actually discovered among the tested student population (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). The results of this portion of the study highlight the necessity of comparison of teacher and

student perceptions regarding strategies and practices that are motivational. If teachers remain unaware of student attitudes, they will be unable to address them.

Application of Expectancy Theory to Research Questions

Many motivational models that could inspire interest exist; however the expectancy model for motivation is particularly well-suited for secondary classroom settings. The expectancy theory of motivation maintains that "the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectancy that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome) and on the value or attractiveness (or valence) of that consequence to the individual" (Lawler, 1994, p. 57). If high school instructors can determine what consequences their students find most attractive, they have the potential to strengthen the tendency of their students to act in a certain way—in this case, to become engaged readers of the texts assigned in their courses.

Some students already want to read. These could be categorized as engaged "readers," defined by Guthrie and Cox (2001) as wide and frequent readers who often explore new territory through text and who are intrinsically motivated to read for the knowledge and enjoyment it provides. The strategies instructors employ to further inspire these already-engaged readers would likely differ from the strategies used to motivate "nonreaders," defined as students who are capable of reading but choose not to do so (Gambrell et al., 1996). Nonreaders could include adolescents who struggle with the mechanics of the reading process: decoding or recoding, comprehension, or response (Sadoski & Paivio, 2007); however, the nonreader category of student could also include those whose extracurricular literacies have been devalued, ignored, or censored by

instructors who deem alternative texts, particularly in electronic formats, as morally suspect, controversial, or distracting from more 'important' coursework, resulting in the near invisibility of those students in the classroom (Kim & Monique, 2004). When students are not acknowledged for bringing valuable, multiple-literacy practices into the classroom, even if they are literate and highly engaged in the type of reading that has been traditionally accepted as nonacademic, they may become resistant to school-based literacy and be recognized by instructors as nonreaders (Alvermann et al., 2007; Lenters, 2006; Moje, Overby, Tysvaer, & Morris, 2008). Therefore, it is important for teachers to know the unique strengths, interests, and motivations of their population of adolescent students of both readers and nonreaders in order to provide outcomes that will be considered most attractive by the group. The significance and utility placed on reading assignments influences student behavior, and the value placed on learning activities has been related to achievement (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Gian Vittorio, & Pastorelli, 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007).

In addition to discovering appropriate outcomes that students find desirable to increase the valence, application of the expectancy theory necessitates that students believe they will be able to be successful at tasks assigned by the instructor. Unless students believe the work is doable, they have little incentive to attempt it (Bandura et al., 1996). This self-efficacy regarding reading abilities has been recognized by researchers as contributing to reading achievement (Lynch, 2002; Nes Ferrara, 2005). Therefore, it is essential for instructors to determine how their students view themselves as readers. According to Jinks and Lorsbach (2003), self-efficacy is regarded as a key area for

teachers to investigate in order to seek out ways to meet the needs of their learners. Content area instructors have the ability to create conditions in the classroom that are associated with positive perceptions of competence and, therefore, a willingness on the part of students to sustain effort to be successful (Pintrich & Schunk, 2001).

Conclusion

Although the studies that are reported suggested the benefits of providing motivation for students to read, few existed specifically for high school students, and only one compared the idea of what teachers perceived as motivational to what the students perceived as motivational. The evidence that concluded the use of motivational strategies in high school classrooms led to increased standardized reading test scores remains largely unknown to content area teachers who seem to have been almost completely excluded from the equation. It is worthwhile to compare what each group, students and their teachers, perceive to be motivational as those strategies and practices that were found to be motivational to students could be utilized by teachers to increase student performance, and those used by teachers that were not actually found to be motivational for students could be altered or discontinued. Through formal study and application of expectancy theory, teachers can be informed and provide the proper motivation to lead to success in reading achievement for their populations.

CHAPTER III: METHOD

The problem addressed in this study is that many high school content-area teachers are unaware that although they may not have been trained in teaching reading strategy and may feel as though teaching reading is not their job, it is an expectation that could largely be met by the implementation of motivational strategies. When teachers do not employ motivational strategies, they miss an opportunity to engage students in reading, ultimately contributing to the decreasing rates of literacy in high schools (National Council of Teachers of English, 2007).

The study is significant because although research has been conducted to determine what motivates students to read, the vast majority of the literature focuses on elementary- and middle-grade students. In addition, a disparity in teacher and student perceptions demonstrates a real problem that must be addressed in order to inform instructors in their delivery and practice regarding motivational strategies to read; if teachers are unaware of their students' perceptions, it is no wonder many students are not motivated and consequently fail to achieve. The results of this study comparing high school teacher perceptions with high school student perceptions regarding strategies and practices they find motivational to read will provide a much-needed perspective that will benefit both populations.

This chapter provides information regarding the research methods utilized to investigate the strategies and practices that motivate adolescents to read and how their perceptions will be compared to their teachers' perceptions. Also incorporated in the

chapter is explanation of how research based on the application of expectancy theory directly addresses the variables in the research questions:

Research Question 1: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read?

Research Question 2: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers?

Research Question 3: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading?

A description of both sets of participants and the manner in which they were selected is also included. Demographics for the students and teachers in the school, along with relevant information about the community in which they are located, are provided. Further, because the study incorporates principles of the expectancy theory of motivation, an explanation regarding the selection and development of survey items corresponding with the theory is supplied, with thorough theoretical basis for items included in the appendix section (Appendix B). Also, an account of the selection and development of survey items to measure student reading self-efficacy and value placed on reading is

included. Rationale for the inclusion of specific demographic questions and an open-ended question is also presented.

Because the survey is a new instrument, reliability and validity testing procedures and results are reported. Results of field testing and pilot study testing are also revealed. An explanation of the research design, along with a timeline specifying how participants were notified and how the survey was distributed, is included in the chapter. Finally, procedures for testing and analysis of data are incorporated along with explanation for selection tests and how each relates to the research questions guiding the study.

Participants

Because the researcher was interested not only in determining particular strategies and practices that students found to be motivational for them to read, but also in comparing those perceptions to those of their teachers, two sets of participants were included in the study. Student subjects included ninth-, tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-graders at a rural high school in the southeastern United States. Latest available data reported the total population as 95,394 people, 92.9% of the population as white, and the median household income as $43,075 in 2009 (Greater Owensboro Economic Development Corporation, 2009). School demographics included 1624 students with a 3.8% non-white population and 29% qualifying for free and reduced lunch programs (Commonwealth of Kentucky, 2009). Three of the four reported non-academic measures demonstrated favorable statistics. The student attendance rate (95.1%) and graduation rate (97.2%) were higher than the state average. This graduation rate appeared to be exceptionally high, but further exploration did not reveal a more accurate reporting of the

statistic. The dropout rate (0.9%) was lower than the state's average. The only measure in which the state reported a more favorable rate than the school was retention rate (defined as the percent of students who had to repeat the grade). The state reported a 2.6% average while the school's was 6.3% (Commonwealth of Kentucky, 2009).

Table 1

Non-Academic Measures

	Attendance Rate	Retention Rate	Dropout Rate	Graduation Rate
School	95.1%	6.3%	0.9%	97.2%
District	96.0%	1.5%	0.7%	94.4%
State	94.2%	2.6%	2.3%	84.5%

Reading readiness and ability for the school ranked higher than the state average on reported measures. The latest available standardized test results data (2009 Kentucky Core Content Test) indicated 69% of those tested were rated as "proficient" or "distinguished" in the area of reading (compared to the state average of 62%), and the school's ACT reading score for the required testing of the entire junior class was 19.40 (compared to the state score of 18.40) (Commonwealth of Kentucky, 2009).

Table 2

Kentucky Core Content Test Scores 2008-2009

		Reading	Mathematics	Science	Writing On Demand	Social Studies
Novice	School	5%	20%	14%	13%	14%
	District	5%	23%	15%	15%	13%
	State	6%	26%	20%	9%	20%
Apprentice	School	27%	36%	39%	56%	33%
	District	29%	35%	39%	58%	35%
	State	33%	33%	38%	56%	40%
Proficient/ Distinguished	School	69%	44%	48%	31%	53%
	District	66%	42%	46%	27%	52%
	State	62%	41%	41%	35%	41%

Table 3

Eleventh Grade ACT Scores 2008-2009

	English	Math	Reading	Science	Composite
School	19.10	19.30	19.40	19.90	19.60
District	18.40	18.70	18.80	19.20	18.90
State	17.30	18.20	18.40	18.50	18.20

The teacher population included 108 certified teachers from all instructional content areas, including required and elective courses, and at all high school grade levels (9-12). Student-to-teacher ratio for the school was reported at 17.0:1, slightly higher than the state average of 16:1. The average number of years of experience for teachers in the school was 13.8 years, which was also higher than the state's average of 11.8 years. The percentage of instructors with master's degrees or beyond (Rank I certification) was 86.3%, and the faculty includes ten National Board Certified teachers, more than in any other school in the district. The only measure that placed the school in a poorer position compared to state averages was the indicator for percentage of faculty teaching with emergency or provisional certification; the state's average was 1.2% while the school's was more than double at 3.8% (Commonwealth of Kentucky, 2009).

Table 4

Teacher Qualifications

	School	District	State
Percentage of Teachers with Emergency Provisional Certification	3.8%	1.4%	1.2%
Percentage of Classes Taught by Teachers who Participated in Content-Focused Professional Development	100%	100%	N/A
Percentage of Core Academic Subject Classes NOT Taught by Highly Qualified Teachers	2.3%	0.4%	1.2%
Average Years of Teaching Experience	13.8	12.4	11.7
Number of Teachers certified by the National Board for Professional Standards	10	23	1,506

The student subjects were those enrolled in the first semester's English courses of the 2010-2011 school year. Because the school operated on a 4x4 block schedule, nearly half of the 1602 students were enrolled in English courses at the time of distribution; the actual number of the pool of subjects was 739 students. English courses were required for all students at all instructional levels (advanced, college preparatory, career preparatory, and special needs) each year, making the likelihood of inclusion of every student group or level within the high school possible as it was desired that no student group or level be excluded from the study. Since no student could be enrolled in more than one core English course at once, there was no possibility of overlap of testing. Also, there were a nearly even number of English courses being taught at each grade level during the semester allowing for the possibility of relatively equal representation among

grade levels: nine freshmen, six sophomore, eight junior, and eight senior sections are being taught.

A total of 444 students in grades nine through twelve responded to the online survey administered to them by their English teachers: 135 freshmen (30%), 73 sophomores (16%), 100 juniors (23%), and 136 seniors (31%). There were 202 males (45%) and 242 females (55%) who responded to the survey. Of the 444 student surveys submitted, 413 were used for analysis. Three of the 413 surveys did not have complete information in the identification of value and self-efficacy portion and were not analyzed in the tests in which students were placed into those categories, but were used in whole-group and open-response analyses.

The teacher participants included instructors of all high school grade levels (9-12) in all core classes, including English, science, social studies, and math, as well as all instructors of the school's numerous elective courses. No teacher of any subject or grade level was excluded from the study. A total of 65 teachers from all grade levels responded to the survey. Two teachers did not complete the survey, leaving a total of 63 to be used for analysis: 20 freshmen teachers (32%), 10 sophomore teachers (16%), 8 junior teachers (13%), 9 senior teachers (14%), and 16 teachers of more than one or all grade levels (25%). The teachers' subjects were categorized as 12 English teachers (19%), 12 math teachers (19%), 8 science teachers (13%), 10 social studies teachers (16%), and 21 elective teachers (33%).

Because the survey was electronically distributed, it is important to note that the participating school was a one-to-one laptop school (meaning every student and teacher

in the high school was provided with a laptop computer by the district) and had been for the previous six years. All students and teachers had access to computers and the internet, and all teachers were charged with integrating technology into their classes as appropriate, so the distribution of the survey by electronic means was subject to equal access for all students and teachers in the high school.

Since the study was distributed electronically to participants, and class time was provided to complete it, a high rate of return of the survey was expected. All participants in the study were supplied with laptop computers, school-provided internet service, and were experienced in the use of technology. Ensuring participants in a web-based survey have the proper software and necessary technological skills have been demonstrated to increase participation (Dillman & Bowker, 2001). The actual rate of participation from the students was 60% (444 out of a total of 739 students enrolled) and the rate of participation from the teachers was 60% (65 out of a total of 108 teachers).

Because the study dealt with human subjects, including minors, a detailed description of research design was submitted to the university's Institutional Review Board. The nature and purpose of the project, an explanation of procedures, anticipated discomfort and risks, confidentiality, and refusal or withdrawal from the study were addressed. The survey instruments, opt-out letters, and letters of consent, and letters of assent were reviewed, and approval of the study will be granted after full-board review. (Appendix A)

Measures

In an effort to create a sample of items that demonstrated a representative degree of the domain of motivational strategies recommended for adolescents to read, several published survey instruments were analyzed and a thorough review of findings from current research including studies with students from preschool through college was conducted. From this wide range of studies, the majority of which focused on elementary and middle school students, a list of strategies and practices that have been found to affect motivation to read were compiled. Many of the findings overlapped and were therefore placed together, allowing for a list that ultimately included twenty-seven items. Each item was attached with a five-point Likert scale with responses ranging from *Strongly Agree* to *Strongly Disagree*. The 27 research-based items compiled served as the dependent variables in the study. Appendix B illustrates the theoretical basis for items included in the survey.

Independent variables included (a) adolescent readers' perception of self-efficacy and the (b) value they place upon reading. According to Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation, "the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectancy [(a) student self-efficacy as a reader] that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome) and on the value [(b) student value of reading] or attractiveness (or valence) of that consequence (or outcome) to the actor" (Lawler, 1994, p. 57). One purpose of this study was to determine if those with higher self-efficacy perceptions were motivated by different strategies than those with lower self-efficacy, and if those who highly valued reading were motivated by different strategies than those

who did not highly value reading. After a thorough review of published survey instruments regarding motivation, eleven items were found to be most relevant for adolescents in regard to reading. Five questions designed to determine subjects' perception of self-efficacy as a reader and six questions designed to determine subjects' value of reading to correspond to the concepts of ability (self-efficacy) and valence (value) were adapted from the Motivation to Read Profile (Gambrell et al., 1996). Two demographic items were added to the beginning of the survey to determine the grade level and sex of each respondent. Although these items are not stated variables in the research questions, it is theorized that analysis might yield trends that could be considered important to instructors. Finally, an open-ended question was added to the survey in hopes of discovering any motivational strategy or practice not included in the resulting list of items. (Appendix C)

Pilot Study and Results

The survey was presented to a focus group of 58 eleventh- and twelfth-grade students, a convenience sample of two existing English classes. After having the students respond to the survey, they were questioned regarding their understanding of the items, the construction of the survey, and the scope of the survey with a specific focus on what important aspects had been overlooked. Based on input from this focus group, the survey was revised to reflect the strategies and practices the group felt was important: five items were reworded for clarity of understanding, two items were combined, and one new item was added.

To pilot the instrument created with online survey software, a link to it was forwarded to a group of instructors via email. Six teachers participated by directing their students to the link, and when the students responded, the software program compiled the corresponding results. A total of 281 students responded. Of the respondents, 49% were female, and 51% were male, a nearly equal balance. Representation of grade levels was also nearly even among the tenth (56 students), eleventh (62 students) and twelfth (53 students) grades, but by far more freshmen responded to the survey (110).

Results were compiled and analyzed in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software program. After reviewing the results, twenty–three responses were disregarded due to incompleteness or suspect patterns of answers. Table 5 presents the means and standard deviations of the 258 participants' responses that were analyzed based on the responses of the whole group without accounting for self-efficacy or value of reading.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for the Motivational Strategies Items

	Item	Mean	SD
1	I am more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test.	3.24	.931
2	I am more likely to read when the teacher is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.	3.70	.830
3	I am excited to read if assigned to participate in literature circles/structured discussions of books/texts/reading materials in small groups.	3.20	1.112
4	Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.	4.11	.893

5	When my teacher demonstrates specific strategies for reading comprehension, I am more likely to read when specific strategies are not demonstrated.	3.13	.822
6	I am more likely to read assigned material for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached.	3.72	.905
7	Being assigned a project (artwork, demonstration, presentation, etc.) connected to assigned reading makes me more likely to read the assignment if the project is in addition to or instead of a traditional pen and paper test.	3.32	1.065
8	I am more likely to read information that relates to a course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book.	3.52	.932
9	I would be more likely to read an assignment for school if the reading assignment were associated with a formal or informal book club than if it were not.	2.88	.810
10	I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material assigned than if there were not test.	3.59	.983
11	I prefer nonfiction (true stories/facts/biographies) reading to fiction (made up stories/fantasy) reading when given the choice	2.79	1.165
12	My teacher's knowledge of assigned subject matter impacts whether or not I read the assignment.	3.35	.815
13	Being provided with adequate time to read assigned texts (either in-class or out-of-class time) is the most important factor in determining whether or not I will read the assigned material.	3.71	.841
14	I am inspired to read something when it is recommended to me by a friend.	3.49	.861
15	It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc.	3.61	.908
16	Being surveyed by my teachers to determine my personal		

	interests has an effect on my likelihood of reading course content.	3.26	.941
17	It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached.	3.76	1.023
18	I prefer reading assessments that ask multiple-choice or true/false questions about what happened in the reading instead of questions that ask me to explain my understanding of the reading.	3.67	1.076
19	I enjoy silent sustained reading time in class.	3.47	1.113
20	The most important factor in determining if I will read an assignment is if it is personally meaningful and relevant to my life.	3.38	.882
21	It is part of my teacher's job as an instructor to provide motivation for me to want to read assignments for class.	3.58	.887
22	If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them.	3.60	.999
23	My perception of myself as competent or non-competent reader has an effect on my likelihood of reading assigned materials for class.	3.26	.808
24	I am more likely to read assignments for class if I like my instructor than if I do not like my instructor.	3.53	1.008
25	I am more likely to read assignments for class if I think that my instructor cares about me than if I think my instructor does not care about me.	3.58	.928
26	I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading.	2.97	1.061
27	I am more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading.	3.60	1.019

Among the items, the fourth item with the highest mean value (4.11) indicated that choice in reading was found to be most motivational among all types of readers whereas the ninth item with the lowest mean value (2.79) indicated that preference for

fiction versus nonfiction was found to be the least motivational factor among all readers. The standard deviations for the 27 items were similar, ranging from .808-1.165. This result indicated the participants showed relatively similar response patterns between strategies and practices.

In an effort to address the reliability of the survey, a coefficient alpha was computed for those 27 items to measure internal consistency. The correlation coefficient was .80. The Cronbach's (1951) alpha level was high, suggesting that the items on the survey were closely related and were measuring one underlying construct: in this case, motivation. A review of corrected item-total correlations revealed that removal of any of the items would not increase the alpha level significantly. A review of these results is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Item-Total Statistics for Motivational Strategies Items

Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if item Deleted
1	88.79	.191	.803
2	89.33	.409	.795
3	89.83	.287	.800
4	88.93	.271	.800
5	88.90	.376	.796
6	89.31	.389	.795
7	89.71	.348	.797
8	89.51	.378	.795
9	90.15	.285	.799
10	89.44	.223	.802
11	90.24	.068	.812
12	89.68	.421	.794
13	89.32	.464	.792
14	89.54	.502	.792
15	89.42	.429	.793
16	89.77	.417	.794
17	89.28	.434	.793

18	89.36	.178	.805
19	89.57	.237	.803
20	89.66	.393	.795
21	89.45	.472	.792
22	89.43	.238	.802
23	89.77	.411	.795
24	89.50	.394	.795
25	89.45	.473	.791
26	90.06	.078	.810
27	89.43	.280	.800

The final 11 items were designed to measure two different constructs: self-perception as a reader and value of reading. In order to determine if the variables could be reduced to the two factors hypothesized, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using a principal-components analysis method on the 11 items. Table 7 presents the results.

Table 7

Eigenvalues of Value and Self-Perception Measures

Factor	Eigenvalues	% of Variance Explained	Cumulative % of Variance Explained
Value	3.838	34.801	34.801
Self-Perception	1.564	14.218	49.020

Analysis yielded two factors having eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and accounting for 49.02% of the common variance. A Varimax rotation method was employed to aid in interpretation of the different factors. Rotated factor loadings confirmed two distinct factors, divided by the categories hypothesized. These findings are demonstrated in Table 8.

Table 8

Factor Loadings of the Value and Self-Perception Measures

	Items	Value	Self-Perception
40	As an adult, I will spend (none—much) of my time reading.	.812	.149
32	Reading a book is something I like to do (never—often).	.788	.307
36	I (never—often) tell my friends about good books/articles/texts/posts I have read.	-.674	-.167
38	People who read often are (very interesting—boring).	.609	.009
41	Knowing how to read well is (not very important—very important).	.587	.189
33	I read things other than books (online posts, articles, magazines, etc.) (never—every day).	.408	.011
34	Reading is (very easy—very difficult) for me.	.181	.786
39	I am a (poor—very good) reader.	.357	.746
37	When I am reading by myself, I understand (almost everything—none) of what I read.	.058	.716
35	When I come to a word I do not know, I can (almost always—never) determine its meaning.	.048	.622
31	When my teacher asks me questions about what I have read, I (can never—can always) determine the answers.	.088	.589

The first factor included items dealing with value of reading: items 32, 33, 36, 38, 40, and 41, with the most important item being item 40 (As an adult I will spend none—much of my time reading) because it showed the highest factor loading of .812. The remaining items still show significant loadings, ranging from .788 to .408. The second factor included items dealing with self-perception as a reader: items 31, 34, 35, 37, and 39, with the most important item being item 34 (Reading is very easy—very difficult for

me) because it showed the highest factor loading of .786. The remaining items still showed significant loadings, ranging from .746 to .589.

Factor analysis was conducted to determine if similar constructs could be identified among the twenty-seven strategies and practices included in the survey. Although testing identified nine factors from the results of the pilot study, analysis of the items included in the factors revealed no apparent meaningful groupings.

Finally, an effort was made by the researcher to determine if correlation could be made between participants who reported a high value for reading with those who reported high self-perception and between those who reported low value for reading and those who reported low self-perception. Pearson correlation studies revealed only moderate correlation (r = .413). Therefore, it was decided that each of the four independent variables would remain separate and not be grouped together for analysis.

Research Design

This study involved no treatment and could be categorized as exploratory research since it was designed to examine, analyze, and investigate a particular area in the social sciences (Stebbins, 2001). One purpose of this exploratory study was to determine which strategies and practices would be most motivational for students who differed in regard to self-efficacy and value of reading because of the connection of these characteristics to the expectancy theory of motivation. Therefore, it must initially have been determined which participants had high and low self-efficacy and value of reading. Once these independent variables had been identified, the dependent variables (motivational strategies and practices) could be determined and ranked as to their importance for each of the groups.

The researcher was interested in discovering which strategies and practices were most motivational to those of each category of reader (low self-efficacy, high self-efficacy, low value, high value) because of the practical implications of the information. If a classroom teacher can determine the category to which his or her students belong, he or she will have researched-based insight into how to motivate those students.

Also of importance was the comparison of the student responses with the teacher responses. The student survey included demographic information, 11 items that identified them as high or low self-efficacious and high or low value for reading, the list of 27 motivational strategies or behaviors they were to categorize as *Strongly Agree* to *Strongly Disagree,* and an open-ended question in which they were asked to provide the most motivational strategy or activity in regard to reading (Appendix C). The teacher survey included demographic information and only the list of 27 motivational strategies or behaviors; however, the items were reworded in order to determine teacher perceptions (Appendix D). For example:

Student Item: *I* am more likely to read if *my teacher* is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.

Teacher Item: *Most of my students* are more likely to read if *I* am enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.

The researcher anticipated that analysis of the study would reveal any gaps that occurred between what teachers perceived was motivational for their students and what the students actually reported as being motivational.

The inclusion of the open-ended question was to discover new or overlooked strategies in motivation to read. Also, demographic information from students including

grade level and sex was included under the belief that the data yielded might be helpful in determining important differences. Teachers were asked what subject areas and grade levels they taught, and this information could potentially have yielded trends as well.

Procedures

During a fall faculty meeting at the participating high school, all teachers were presented with an explanation of the purpose and expected impact of the study as well as a timeline and outline of the procedure. They were instructed that participation for them and their students was voluntary, and no pressure, award, or grade for their students should be attached to completion of the survey. At that time, teacher questions were addressed.

Because minors (high school students) were included in the study, their parents were provided an opt-out letter before they were allowed to participate in the survey (Appendix E). The researcher provided a copy for each potential student subject to all English teachers, as earlier explained. These teachers distributed the letters to the students in their classes, and instructed students to take them home to their parents. The letters included the nature and purpose of the project, an explanation of procedures, discomfort and risks, benefits, confidentiality, and refusal or withdrawal processes concerns. Teachers instructed students that the signed opt-out letters were due from parents who did not wish their children to participate within one school week (five days) of their distribution. Also, a copy of the opt-out letter was forwarded to the school's principal to be included in a weekly electronic communication with parents who join the listserv. In addition, the letter was posted to the school's webpage.

English teachers were instructed to collect the opt-out letters after the five day period had elapsed. At the end of the five day period, the teachers were contacted by the researcher and reported no opt-out letters had been received. The researcher then emailed a student letter of assent (Appendix F) to English teachers for them to e-mail to their eligible students. Included in the letter was a link to the online survey, and if students consented after reading the letter, they were allowed to click the link to continue to the survey. Each English teacher had an e-mail distribution list for each class, so the step did not take an inordinate amount of time, and teachers were asked to provide the letter with the link within a five day period.

Teachers, the other group of subjects included in this study, were provided with the teacher letter of consent electronically (Appendix G). Those who consented were able to click on a link that directed them to the survey to participate. Teachers were asked to complete the survey within a five day period. At the end of the five day period, the survey was closed and data was collected by the researcher.

Table 9

Study Timeline

Time	Action
Week One	Presentation of procedure at faculty meeting
Week Two	Teachers distribute parent opt-out letters
	Parent opt-out letters sent to parents on email listserv
	Parent opt-out letter posted to school's webpage
Week Three	Teachers collect parent opt-out letters
Week Four	Teachers provide letters of assent with survey links
	Teachers and eligible students participate in the survey
Week Five	Survey closes

The survey was designed using the electronic web tool SurveyMonkey. Data collected using SurveyMonkey is password protected and not available to the public. The link to the surveys was sent to participants by the researcher, and once a participant had completed the survey, the program would not allow that participant to enter the site again. Student participants in the survey were first asked to select choices that indicated their current grade level and gender. They then selected choices on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *Strongly Agree* to *Strongly Disagree* that reflected their perceptions in regard to the research-based strategies and practices listed. An open-ended question followed in which students could list or describe any strategies they thought had been most effective in their classes in encouraging reading. Finally, students selected from choices in the remaining eleven items designed to determine how much value they placed on reading and how effective they perceived themselves as readers.

Teacher participants in the survey were asked to indicate which grade levels and subjects they primarily taught. They then selected choices on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *Strongly Agree* to *Strongly Disagree* that reflected their perceptions of what their students believed in regard to the research-based strategies and practices listed. An open-ended question followed in which teachers could list or describe any strategies they thought had been most effective in their classes in encouraging reading.

The electronic survey was designed to let participants only select one answer on all items with the exception of the open-ended question. That question was designed to allow participants to enter text by creation of a comment/essay box.

Data Analysis

After the specified time frame for completion of the surveys, the results were exported from the online software program into the SPSS software program for statistical analysis. This study utilized a mixed methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative data analysis in order to strengthen the validity of the study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Using a combination of methods was important in attempting to triangulate the data, allowing the researcher to examine information in a way that enriched the study's results and implications.

Regarding Research Question 1: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read? Student results were compared to teacher responses using *t* testing to determine in which areas the student responses and teacher responses were least and most divergent. A *t* test was chosen to compare the student and teacher responses since it is appropriate in assessing whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other (Trochim & Donnelly, 2006). Learning which motivational strategies and practices the two groups perceive the most differently will allow the teachers to address them specifically; the first step in solving a problem is defining the problem.

Regarding Research Question 2: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers? and Research Question 3: Are there

differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading? To determine strategies and practices most motivational for each category of student (those who reported a high value for reading, a low value for reading, a high self-efficacy, and a low self-efficacy), 27 ANOVAs were completed. ANOVA tests were conducted because the study included more than two independent variables and they were quantified rather than categorized. ANOVA testing can detect correlation between the four independent variables (students with high self-efficacy, students with low self-efficacy, students who report a high value of reading, and students who report a low value of reading) and each of the 27 dependent variables (identified motivational strategies and practices) (Shavelson, 1995).

In addition, the responses from the open-ended question regarding the most motivational strategy for students were analyzed using content analysis, and a comparison was made between the results provided from students and teachers. Krippendorff (2004) describes content analysis as a research technique that entails a systematic reading of relatively small amounts of text in order to identify themes in the collected raw data. Finding similar words or phrases and placing them together into categories can be useful in creating manageable chunks of information can lead to a new understanding of the data. In addition, the use of inferential data gathered from content analysis can reflect the values, beliefs, and attitudes of each of the surveyed populations. Used with the quantitative data, this content analysis, which describes characteristics of

communication, can aid in validating, invalidating, or simply expanding upon understandings of reported information (Holsti, 1969).

Conclusion

Although the studies that were reported suggested the benefits of providing motivation for students to read, few existed specifically for high school students, and even fewer compared the idea of what teachers perceived as motivational to what the students perceived as motivational. The evidence that concludes the use of motivational strategies in high school classrooms led to increased standardized reading test scores remains largely unknown to content area teachers who seem to have been almost completely excluded from the equation. It is worthwhile to measure what strategies and practices high school students find most motivational and to determine particular groups of students that respond to particular motivational strategies. Additionally, it is important to compare what each group, students and their teachers, perceive to be motivational as those strategies and practices that were found to be motivational to students could be utilized by teachers to increase student performance, and those used by teachers that were not actually found to be motivational for students could be altered or discontinued. Through formal study and application of expectancy theory, teachers can be informed and provide the proper motivation to lead to success in reading achievement for their populations.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

The problem addressed in this study is that many high school students are reluctant to read because they do not value reading and/or they perceive themselves as poor readers, but because high school teachers' pre-service education primarily focuses on content-area instruction, they have often not been taught strategies that provide explicit, directed reading instruction to their students. These high school content teachers are often unaware that the implementation of specific and purposeful motivational strategies can be utilized to encourage students to read in their subject areas. When teachers do not employ motivational strategies, they miss an opportunity to engage students in reading, ultimately contributing to the decreasing rates of literacy in high schools (National Council of Teachers of English, 2007).

The study is significant because although research has been conducted to determine what motivates students to read, the vast majority of the literature focuses on elementary- and middle-grade students. Few have studied a high school population of students whose content-specific instructors approach the teaching of reading very differently than their elementary school counterparts. A disparity in teacher and student perceptions demonstrates an issue that must be addressed in order to inform instructors in their delivery and practice regarding motivational strategies to read; if teachers are unaware of their students' perceptions, it is no wonder many students are not motivated and consequently fail to achieve. The results of this study comparing high school teacher and student perceptions regarding motivation to read will provide a much-needed perspective that will benefit both populations. In addition, this information can be used

to develop professional development training that will inform teachers not only in which areas disparities exist between teacher and student perceptions, but how to work to decrease those disparities. Research Question 1 is designed to identify the similarities and differences in teacher-student perspective:

> Research Question 1: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read?

High school classrooms are made up of a variety of students—some who believe they are proficient readers, and some who do not; some who value reading and its effects and some who do not. The motivational strategies for *readers* may be very different from those of *nonreaders*. Secondary education instructors can benefit from a differentiation of strategies based on student self-perceptions. Research Questions 2 and 3 are designed to identify these differences and reveal strategies that each distinct group finds motivational to read:

> Research Question 2: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers?
>
> Research Question 3 asks: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading?

Findings Related to Research Question 1

Identifying differences.

Research Question 1 asks: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read? Since *t* tests are appropriate in assessing whether the means of two groups are statistically different from each other (Trochim & Donnelly, 2006), independent-samples *t* tests were conducted comparing the student whole group responses and teacher responses to each of the 27 motivational strategies and practices survey items (see Table 10).

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics and t-test Values for Teacher and Whole Group Student Groups

Item	Group	*N*	Mean	SD	*df*	*t*	Sig
1	Teachers	63	2.75	.897	472	-3.305	.001
	Students	411	3.18	.981			
2	Teachers	63	3.75	1.015	474	-.680	.497
	Students	413	3.83	.934			
3	Teachers	61	3.18	.866	472	.974	.331
	Students	413	3.04	1.085			
4	Teachers	62	3.92	.893	472	-1.710	.088
	Students	412	4.14	.959			
5	Teachers	63	3.56	.736	473	2.361	.019
	Students	412	3.28	.884			
6	Teachers	63	3.94	.759	102.930	2.529	.013
	Students	410	3.66	1.056			
7	Teachers	62	3.61	.894	91.549	1.649	.103
	Students	412	3.41	1.104			
8	Teachers	63	3.81	.692	107.417	3.105	.002
	Students	412	3.50	1.012			
9	Teachers	62	2.85	.698	95.396	.689	.493
	Students	412	2.79	.911			
10	Teachers	63	3.92	.955	88.068	2.458	.016
	Students	412	3.60	1.080			
11	Teachers	60	2.93	.733	104.677	2.779	.006

	Students	409	2.63	1.122			
12	Teachers	61	3.43	.903	469	.305	.761
	Students	410	3.39	.922			
13	Teachers	61	3.74	.854	83.946	.766	.446
	Students	413	3.65	.958			
14	Teachers	61	3.70	.843	471	.482	.630
	Students	412	3.65	.905			
15	Teachers	62	4.10	.646	101.421	4.762	.000
	Students	408	3.65	.904			
16	Teachers	61	3.43	.826	467	.670	.503
	Students	408	3.34	.945			
17	Teachers	61	3.25	1.011	468	-3.918	.000
	Students	409	3.80	1.037			
18	Teachers	60	3.83	.886	88.927	1.523	.131
	Students	411	3.64	1.118			
19	Teachers	61	2.82	1.162	470	-3.302	.001
	Students	411	3.38	1.246			
20	Teachers	62	3.97	.724	93.578	5.748	.000
	Students	412	3.38	.921			
21	Teachers	62	4.08	.911	470	3.828	.000
	Students	410	3.60	.923			
22	Teachers	62	3.94	.807	93.508	2.472	.015
	Students	412	3.65	1.027			
23	Teachers	62	4.10	.670	96.706	8.967	.000
	Students	408	3.24	.887			
24	Teachers	62	3.35	1.010	470	-.539	.590
	Students	410	3.43	1.052			
25	Teachers	62	3.56	1.065	470	1.103	.271
	Students	410	3.40	1.061			
26	Teachers	61	3.84	.840	100.280	6.912	.000
	Students	410	2.99	1.196			
27	Teachers	61	4.10	.746	107.379	4.794	.000
	Students	408	3.57	1.141			

There were significant differences in the mean scores of teachers and students in 15 of the 27 items (56%). Those with significant differences were the following:

Item 1: I am more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test. In response to Item 1, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 2.75, SD = .897) was significantly

lower than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.18, SD = .981), t(472) = -3.305, p = .001.

Item 5: When my teacher demonstrates specific strategies for reading comprehension, I am more likely to read than when specific strategies are not demonstrated. In response to Item 5, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.56, SD = .736) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.28, SD = .884), t(473) = 2.361, p = .019.

Item 6: I am more likely to read assigned material for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached. In response to Item 6, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.94, SD = .759) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.66, SD = 1.056), t(102.930) = 2.529 , p = .013.

Item 8: I am more likely to read information that relates to a course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book. In response to Item 8, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.81, SD =.692) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.50, SD = .1.012), t(107.417) = 3.105 , p = .002.

Item 10: I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material assigned than if there were no test. In response to Item 10, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.92, SD = .955) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.60, SD = .1.080), t(88.068) = 2.458, p = .016.

Item 11: I prefer nonfiction (true stories/facts/biographies) reading to fiction (made up stories/fantasy) reading when given the choice. In response to Item 11, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 2.93, SD = .733) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 2.63, SD = 1.122), t(104.677) = 2.779, p = .006.

Item 15: It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc. In response to Item 15, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 4.10, SD = .646) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.65, SD = .904), t(101.421) = 4.762, p = .000.

Item 17: It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached. In response to Item 17, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.25, SD = 1.011) was significantly lower than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.80, SD = 1.037), t(468) = -3.918, p = .000.

Item 19: I enjoy silent sustained reading. In response to Item 19, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 2.82, SD = 1.162) was significantly lower than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.38, SD = 1.246), t(470) = -3.302, p = .001.

Item 20: The most important factor in determining if I will read an assignment is if it is personally meaningful and relevant to my life. In response to Item 20, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.97, SD = .724) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.38, SD = .921), t(93.578) = 5.748, p = .000.

Item 21: It is part of my teacher's job as an instructor to provide motivation for me to want to read assignments for class. In response to Item 21, the mean score of the

teacher group (M = 4.08, SD = .911) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.60, SD = .923), t(470) = 3.828, p = .000.

Item 22: If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them. In response to Item 22, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.94, SD = .807) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.65, SD = 1.027), t(93.508) = 2.472, p = .015.

Item 23: My perception of myself as a competent or non-competent reader has an effect on my likelihood or reading assigned materials for class. In response to Item 23, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 4.10, SD = .670) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.24, SD = .887), t(96.706) = 8.967, p = .000.

Item 26: I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading. In response to Item 26, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 3.84, SD = .840) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 2.99, SD = 1.196), t(100.280) = 6.912, p = .000.

Item 27: I am more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading. In response to Item 27, the mean score of the teacher group (M = 4.10, SD = .746) was significantly higher than the mean score of the student group (M = 3.57, SD = 1.141), t(107.379) = 4.794, p = .000.

Ranking differences.

The divergence in the means among the items demonstrating statistical significance was higher in some items and lower in others. From a practical standpoint, it

may be important to identify those items with the highest divergence in order to determine an appropriate area of focus for the design of professional development for instructors. The strategies and practices that teachers and students disagreed from most to least are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Ranked Differences in Mean Scores of Teacher and Whole Group Student Groups

Item		Mean Diff
23	My perception of myself as a competent or non-competent reader has an effect on my likelihood or reading assigned materials for class.	.86
26	I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading.	.85
20	The most important factor in determining if I will read an assignment is if it is personally meaningful and relevant to my life.	.59
19	I enjoy silent sustained reading.	.56
17	It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached.	.55
27	I am more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading.	.53
21	It is part of my teacher's job as an instructor to provide motivation for me to want to read assignments for class.	.48
15	It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc.	.45
1	I am more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test.	.43
10	I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material	

	assigned than if there were no test.	.32
8	I am more likely to read information that relates to a course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book.	.31
11	I prefer nonfiction (true stories/facts/biographies) reading to fiction (made up stories/fantasy) reading when given the choice.	.30
22	If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them.	.29
5	When my teacher demonstrates specific strategies for reading comprehension, I am more likely to read than when specific strategies are not demonstrated.	.28
6	I am more likely to read assigned material for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached.	.28

Findings Related to Research Questions 2 and 3

Research Question 2 asks: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers? Research Question 3 asks: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading? To determine strategies and practices most motivational for each category of student (those who reported a high value for reading, a low value for reading, a high self-efficacy, and a low self-efficacy), 27 ANOVAs were completed. ANOVA tests were conducted because the study included more than two independent variables and they were quantified rather than categorized.

ANOVA testing can detect correlation between the four independent variables (students with high self-efficacy, students with low self-efficacy, students who report a high value of reading, and students who report a low value of reading) and each of the 27 dependent variables (identified motivational strategies and practices) (Shavelson, 1995).

Determining student groups.

To determine student groupings, the third portion of the survey which identified students' perceptions of value for reading and self-efficacy as readers was analyzed. Since six questions were asked using a four-point Likert type scale in the value for reading category, those whose total scores were 1-12 were categorized as Low Value (LV), indicating those respondents had little value for reading; those whose total scores were 13-24 were categorized as High Value (HV), indicating those respondents placed a high value on reading. Five questions were asked using a four-point Likert type scale in the self-efficacy as a reader category, so those whose total scores were 1-10 were categorized as Low Self-Efficacy (LE), indicating those respondents perceived that they were not efficient readers; those whose total scores were 11-20 were categorized as High Self-Efficacy (HE), indicating those respondents perceived that they were efficient readers. Table 12 provides descriptive statistics for each student group.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Students in Each Reading Category

		N	Mean	SD
Item 1	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	330	3.24	.978
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.30	.949
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	47	2.83	.963
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.89	.937

	Total	406	3.18	.981
Item 2	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	330	3.96	.885
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.60	.843
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.24	.969
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.26	.991
	Total	408	3.84	.935
Item 3	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	330	3.14	1.067
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	2.40	.966
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	2.59	1.117
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.84	1.119
	Total	408	3.04	1.090
Item 4	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	4.30	.867
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.30	.949
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.53	1.120
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.42	1.017
	Total	407	4.14	.964
Item 5	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	330	3.35	.860
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.10	.994
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	2.98	.901
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	2.89	1.023
	Total	407	3.28	.885
Item 6	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	328	3.74	1.024
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.20	1.135
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.31	1.065
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	3.33	1.283
	Total	405	3.66	1.055
Item 7	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.50	1.096
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.60	1.075
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	2.96	1.020
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.74	.933
	Total	407	3.40	1.101
Item 8	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.57	.982
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	2.60	.966
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.24	1.051
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.21	1.228
	Total	407	3.49	1.017
Item 9	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	330	2.82	.899
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	2.70	.823

	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	2.73	.953
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	2.39	1.092
	Total	407	2.78	.914
Item 10	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	330	3.68	1.060
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.40	.843
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	48	3.35	1.101
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.89	1.286
	Total	407	3.60	1.085
Item 11	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	327	2.60	1.144
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.20	1.033
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	48	2.54	.944
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.05	1.079
	Total	404	2.63	1.121
Item 12	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.44	.926
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	9	3.56	.726
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.22	.919
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	2.89	.832
	Total	405	3.39	.924
Item 13	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	330	3.77	.927
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.50	.527
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.12	.927
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.95	1.129
	Total	408	3.65	.963
Item 14	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.81	.810
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.40	.966
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.00	.866
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.53	1.124
	Total	407	3.64	.909
Item 15	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	326	3.77	.866
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.30	.949
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	48	3.19	.938
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.00	.882
	Total	403	3.65	.908
Item 16	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	327	3.42	.943
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.70	.823
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	48	2.90	.831
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	2.89	1.023
	Total	403	3.34	.950

Item 17	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.98	.964
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.40	1.075
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	47	2.98	1.053
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	2.94	.873
	Total	404	3.80	1.040
Item 18	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.71	1.115
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	9	3.56	1.014
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.33	1.068
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.32	1.204
	Total	406	3.64	1.117
Item 19	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.57	1.185
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	2.90	1.101
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	2.61	1.239
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	2.33	1.237
	Total	406	3.38	1.251
Item 20	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.44	.895
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	2.90	1.197
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.12	.927
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.26	1.147
	Total	407	3.38	.925
Item 21	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	328	3.72	.895
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.20	1.033
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	48	3.10	.831
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.05	1.026
	Total	405	3.60	.927
Item 22	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	329	3.68	1.020
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.70	.949
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.45	1.042
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.63	1.257
	Total	407	3.65	1.032
Item 23	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	327	3.28	.899
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.60	.699
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	47	2.98	.707
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.11	1.100
	Total	403	3.24	.889
Item 24	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	328	3.52	1.049
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.50	1.080
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.02	.924

	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	18	2.89	1.132
	Total	405	3.43	1.055
Item 25	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	327	3.51	1.042
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.70	1.160
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	2.86	.979
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.89	1.100
	Total	405	3.41	1.064
Item 26	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	328	2.88	1.196
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	10	3.40	.516
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	48	3.31	1.075
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	3.68	1.455
	Total	405	2.99	1.200
Item 27	1: High Value and High Self-Efficacy (HV-HE)	326	3.68	1.121
	2: High Value and Low Self-Efficacy (HV-LE)	9	3.22	.833
	3: Low Value and High Self-Efficacy (LV-HE)	49	3.14	1.155
	4: Low Value and Low Self-Efficacy (LV-LE)	19	2.84	1.214
	Total	403	3.57	1.147

Differences among student groups.

ANOVA testing revealed significant differences among the means of student groups in 22 of the 27 items (81%). A summary of ANOVA tests on all items in which significant differences were indicated is presented in Table 13.

Table 13

ANOVA Values for Significant Differences in Means Among Student Groups

		Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Item 1	Between Groups	8.741	3	2.914	3.073	.028
	Within Groups	381.134	402	.948		
	Total	389.874	405			
Item 2	Between Groups	29.288	3	9.763	12.072	.000
	Within Groups	326.709	404	.809		
	Total	355.998	407			
Item 3	Between Groups	17.746	3	5.915	5.132	.002

	Within Groups	465.627	404	1.153		
	Total	483.373	407			
Item 4	Between Groups	43.273	3	14.424	17.418	.000
	Within Groups	333.744	403	.828		
	Total	377.017	406			
Item 5	Between Groups	9.187	3	3.062	3.996	.008
	Within Groups	308.882	403	.766		
	Total	318.069	406			
Item 6	Between Groups	12.313	3	4.104	3.766	.011
	Within Groups	436.981	401	1.090		
	Total	449.294	404			
Item 7	Between Groups	21.665	3	7.222	6.189	.000
	Within Groups	470.252	403	1.167		
	Total	491.916	406			
Item 8	Between Groups	14.690	3	4.897	4.872	.002
	Within Groups	405.045	403	1.005		
	Total	419.735	406			
Item 10	Between Groups	14.796	3	4.932	4.292	.005
	Within Groups	463.120	403	1.149		
	Total	477.916	406			
Item 12	Between Groups	6.953	3	2.318	2.753	.042
	Within Groups	337.625	401	.842		
	Total	344.578	404			
Item 13	Between Groups	27.967	3	9.322	10.785	.000
	Within Groups	349.210	404	.864		
	Total	377.176	407			
Item 14	Between Groups	53.554	3	17.851	25.504	.000
	Within Groups	282.073	403	.700		
	Total	335.627	406			
Item 15	Between Groups	24.207	3	8.069	10.482	.000
	Within Groups	307.158	399	.770		
	Total	331.365	402			
Item 16	Between Groups	16.626	3	5.542	6.389	.000
	Within Groups	346.118	399	.867		
	Total	362.744	402			
Item 17	Between Groups	56.984	3	18.995	20.038	.000
	Within Groups	379.174	400	.948		
	Total	436.158	403			

Item 19	Between Groups	62.209	3	20.736	14.589	.000
	Within Groups	571.378	402	1.421		
	Total	633.586	405			
Item 20	Between Groups	6.908	3	2.303	2.723	.044
	Within Groups	340.822	403	.846		
	Total	347.730	406			
Item 21	Between Groups	23.776	3	7.925	9.832	.000
	Within Groups	323.222	401	.806		
	Total	346.998	404			
Item 24	Between Groups	16.454	3	5.485	5.079	.002
	Within Groups	433.062	401	1.080		
	Total	449.516	404			
Item 25	Between Groups	24.176	3	8.059	7.453	.000
	Within Groups	433.602	401	1.081		
	Total	457.778	404			
Item 26	Between Groups	19.496	3	6.499	4.633	.003
	Within Groups	562.415	401	1.403		
	Total	581.911	404			
Item 27	Between Groups	24.335	3	8.112	6.415	.000
	Within Groups	504.539	399	1.265		
	Total	528.873	402			

To determine which particular mean scores were significantly different from each other within the groups, Tukey post hoc tests were run on the 22 items for which significance was indicated. Only significant differences among groups are reported (see Table 14).

Table 14

Significant Multiple Comparisons Among Student Groups

Item		Groups	Mean Diff	Sig
1	I am more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test.	1 – 3	-.413	.034
2	I am more likely to read when a teacher is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.	1 – 3	.719	.000
		1 – 4	-.700	.006

3	I am excited to read if assigned to participate in literature circles/structured discussion of books/texts/reading materials in small groups.	1 – 3	.545	.006
4	Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.	1 – 2 1 – 3 1 – 4	.998 .767 .877	.004 .000 .000
5	When my teacher demonstrates specific strategies for reading comprehension, I am more likely to read than when specific strategies are not demonstrated.	1 – 3	.372	.029
6	I am more likely to read assigned material for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached.	1 – 3	.435	.034
7	Being assigned a project (artwork, demonstration, presentation, etc.) connected to assigned reading makes me more likely to read the assignment if the project is in addition to or instead of a traditional pen and paper test.	1 – 3 1 – 4	.542 .765	.006 .015
8	I am more likely to read information that relates to a course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book.	1 – 2	.974	.014
10	I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material assigned than if there were no test.	1 – 4	.784	.011
13	Being provided with adequate time to read assigned texts (either in-class or out-of-class time) is the most important factor in determining whether or not I will read the assigned material.	1 – 3 1 – 4	.647 .822	.000 .001
14	I am inspired to read something when it is recommended to me by a friend.	1 – 3 1 – 4 2 – 4	.809 1.282 .874	.000 .000 .039
15	It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc.	1 – 3 1 – 4	.582 .770	.000 .001
16	Being surveyed by my teachers to determine my personal interests has an effect on my likelihood or reading course content.	1 – 3	.526	.002
17	It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached.	1 – 3 1 – 4	1.000 1.034	.000 .000
19	I enjoy silent sustained reading.	1 – 3 1 – 4	.183 1.232	.000 .000
21	It is part of my teacher's job as an instructor to provide motivation for me to want to read assignments for class.	1 – 3 1 – 4	.615 .667	.000 .010
24	I am more likely to read assignments for class if I like my instructor than if I do not like my instructor.	1 – 3	.504	.009
25	I am more likely to read assignments for class if I think that my instructor cares about me than if I think my instructor does not care about me.	1 – 3	.654	.000
26	I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading.	1 – 4	-.800	.023
27	I am more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as			

a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading.	1 – 3	.541	.010
	1 – 4	.842	.009

Note. Group (1) = High Value-High Self-Efficacy, (2) = High Value-Low Self-Efficacy, (3) = Low Value-High Self-Efficacy, (4) = Low Value-Low Self-Efficacy.

There was a significant difference in the means among groups in the following items:

Item 1: I am more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 402) = 3.073$, $p = .028$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .978$) and Group 3 ($M = 2.83$, $SD = .963$).

Item 2: I am more likely to read when a teacher is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 404) = 12.072$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .885$) and Group 3 ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .969$). There was also significant differences between Group 1($M = 3.96$, $SD = .885$) and Group 4 ($M = 3.26$, $SD = .991$).

Item 3: I am excited to read if assigned to participate in literature circles/structured discussion of books/texts/reading materials in small groups. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 404) = 5.132$, $p = .002$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.067$) and Group 3 ($M = 2.59$, $SD = 1.117$).

Item 4: Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.

ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 403) = 17.418$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 4.30, SD = .867) and Group 2 (M = 3.30, SD = .949). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 4.30, SD = .867) and Group 3 (M = 3.53, SD = 1.120). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 4.30, SD = .867) and Group 4 (M = 3.42, SD = 1.017).

Item 5: When my teacher demonstrates specific strategies for reading comprehension, I am more likely to read than when specific strategies are not demonstrated. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 403) = 3.996$, $p = .008$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.35, SD = .860) and Group 3 (M = 2.98, SD = .901).

Item 6: I am more likely to read assigned material for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 401) = 3.766$, $p = .011$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.74, SD = 1.024) and Group 3 (M = 3.31, SD = 1.065).

Item 7: Being assigned a project (artwork, demonstration, presentation, etc.) connected to assigned reading makes me more likely to read the assignment if the project is in addition to or instead of a traditional pen and paper test. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 403) = 6.189$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.50, SD = 1.096) and

Group 3 (M = 2.96, SD = 1.020). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.50, SD = 1.096) and Group 4 (M = 2.74, SD = .933).

Item 8: I am more likely to read information that relates to a course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 403) = 4.872$, $p = .002$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.57, SD = .982) and Group 2 (M = 2.60, SD = .966).

Item 10: I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material assigned than if there were no test. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 403) = 4.292$, $p = .005$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.68, SD = 1.060) and Group 4 (M = 2.89, SD = 1.286).

Item 12: My teacher's knowledge of assigned subject matter impacts whether or not I read the assignment. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 401) = 2.753$, $p = .042$; however, Tukey post hoc testing failed to reveal significant differences between the groups.

Item 13: Being provided with adequate time to read assigned texts (either in-class or out-of-class time) is the most important factor in determining whether or not I will read the assigned material. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 404) = 10.785$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.77, SD = .927) and Group 3 (M = 3.12, SD = .927).

There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.77, SD = .927) and Group 4 (M = 2.95, SD = 1.129).

Item 14: I am inspired to read something when it is recommended to me by a friend. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 403) = 25.504$, p = .000. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.81, SD = .810) and Group 3 (M = 3.00, SD = .866). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.81, SD = .810) and Group 4 (M =2.53, SD = 1.124). There was also significant differences between Group 2 (M = 3.40, SD = .966) and Group 4 (M = 2.53, SD = 1.124).

Item 15: It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 399) = 10.482$, p = .000. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.77, SD = .866) and Group 3 (M = 3.19, SD = .938). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.77, SD = .866) and Group 4 (M = 3.00, SD = .882).

Item 16: Being surveyed by my teachers to determine my personal interests has an effect on my likelihood or reading course content. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 399) = 6.389$, p = .000. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.42, SD = .943) and Group 3 (M = 2.90, SD = .831).

Item 17: It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 400) = 20.038$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.98, SD = .964) and Group 3 (M = 2.93, SD = 1.053). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.98, SD = .964) and Group 4 (M = 2.94, SD = .873).

Item 19: I enjoy silent sustained reading. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 402) = 14.589$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.57, SD = 1.185) and Group 3 (M = 2.61, SD = 1.239). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.57, SD = 1.185) and Group 4 (M =2.33, SD = 1.237).

Item 20: The most important factor in determining if I will read as assignment is if it is personally meaningful and relevant to my life. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 403) = 2.273$, $p = .044$; however, Tukey post hoc testing failed to reveal significant differences between the groups.

Item 21: It is part of my teacher's job as an instructor to provide motivation for me to want to read assignments for class. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 401) = 9.832$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.72, SD = .895) and Group 3 (M = 3.10, SD = .831). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.72, SD = .895) and Group 4 (M = 3.05, SD = 1.026).

Item 24: I am more likely to read assignments for class if I like my instructor than if I do not like my instructor. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 401) = 5.079$, $p = .002$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.52, SD = 1.049) and Group 3 (M = 3.02, SD = .924).

Item 25: I am more likely to read assignments for class if I think that my instructor cares about me than if I think my instructor does not care about me. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 401) = 7.453$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.51, SD = 1.042) and Group 3 (M = 2.86, SD = .979).

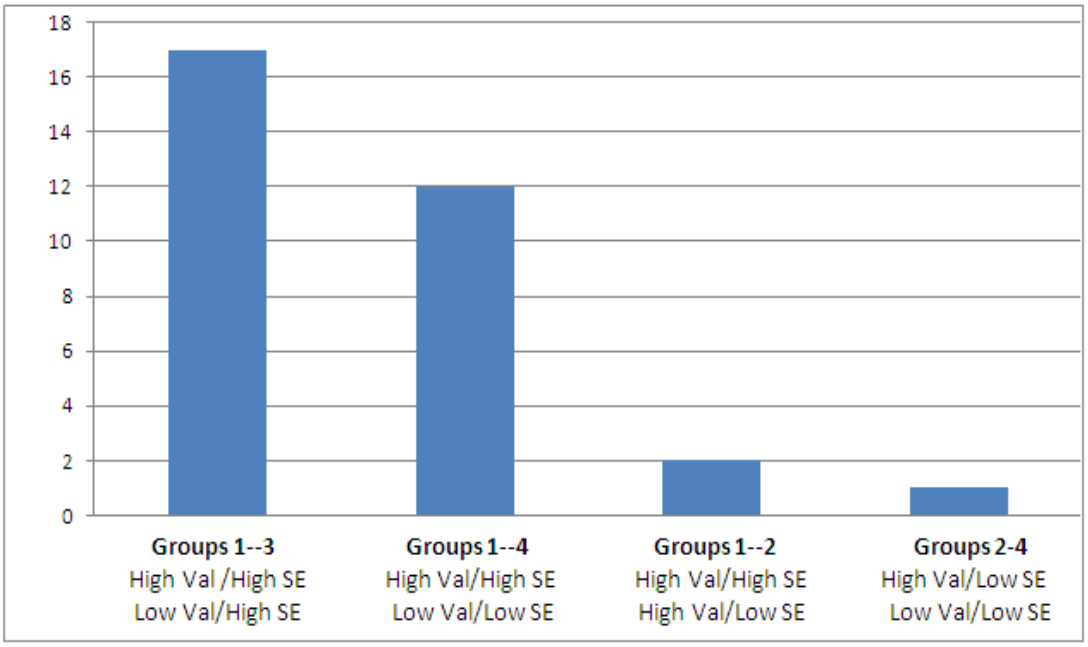
Item 26: I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 401) = 4.633$, $p = .003$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 2.88, SD = 1.196) and Group 4 (M = 3.68, SD = 1.455).

Item 27: I am more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading. ANOVA testing revealed significant differences between groups, $F(3, 399) = 6.415$, $p = .000$. Tukey post hoc testing revealed significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.68, SD = 1.121) and Group 3 (M = 3.14, SD = 1.155). There was also significant differences between Group 1 (M = 3.68, SD = 1.121) and Group 4 (M = 2.84, SD = 1.214).

Summary of differences.

Seventeen items (research-based strategies and practices) were identified as demonstrating significant differences between students in Groups 1 and 3. Since Group 1 included students who self identified as having a high value for reading and a high self-efficacy (HV-HE) and Group 3 included students who self identified as having low value for reading and high self-efficacy (LV-HE), the difference between those groups is the students' value for reading. One item revealed a difference between Group 2 (HV-LE) and Group 4 (LV-LE), another grouping that demonstrates a difference in students' value for reading only (self-efficacy was the same in both groups). Twelve of the items were identified as having significant differences between Group 1 (HV-HE) and Group 4 (LV-LE). These groups also differ in students' value for reading; however, they differ in self-efficacy as well. Two items were identified as having significant differences between Group 1 (HV-HE) and Group 2 (HV-LE), with the difference being in self-efficacy only (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Numbers of Items With Statistical Differences Between Student Groups



In a total of 18 items (67%) significant differences of means were demonstrated in cases in which the only difference was students' self-reported value for reading. In a total of 14 items (52%) significant differences of means were demonstrated in cases in which the only difference was students' self-reported self-efficacy as readers.

Content Analysis of Open-Ended Question

An open-ended question (Item 30) was provided to gather research regarding motivational strategies used in classes. Since the nature of the open-ended question was descriptive rather than quantitative, content analysis was used to provide analysis. Content analysis is described by Krippendorff (2004) as a research technique that entails

a systematic reading of relatively small amounts of text in order to identify themes in the collected raw data. Finding similar words or phrases and placing them together into categories can be useful in creating manageable chunks of information can lead to a new understanding of the data. In addition, the use of inferential data gathered from content analysis can reflect the values, beliefs, and attitudes of each of the surveyed populations. Used with the quantitative data, this content analysis, which describes characteristics of communication, can aid in validating, invalidating, or simply expanding upon understandings of reported information (Holsti, 1969).

Student responses.

Students were asked the following question: What strategy or strategies have been most effective in your classes in encouraging you to read? The process of inductive content analysis was used to code participants' responses to the question. Of the 413 student surveys used in the analysis, student responses were entered on 321, creating a 78% response rate to the open-ended question among the students. Table 15 contains descriptive statistics for student responses.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for Student Open-Ended Question

Group	N	Number of Student Responses	Sex		Grade	N
					9	96
(Group 1)	330	258	Male	133	10	48
High Val/High SE			Female	197	11	84
					12	102
					9	3
(Group 2)	10	6	Male	4	10	1
High Val/Low SE			Female	6	11	2
					12	4
					9	16
(Group 3)	49	34	Male	32	10	4
Low Val/High SE			Female	17	11	12
					12	17
					9	3
(Group 4)	19	12	Male	13	10	4
Low Val/Low SE			Female	6	11	4
					12	8

Responses were systematically placed into emergent categories; as they were read, if new response did not fit an already defined category, a new one was created. The broad categories are listed in Table 16.

Table 16

Categories of Student Open-Ended Question Responses

Category	Description
Teacher Behavior/Attitude	Specific actions and behaviors of teachers that affect the likelihood of student reading
Quality/Type of Reading	Student-described qualities that are or are not attractive to students in motivating them to read
Ways of Assigning Reading	Procedures teacher use for assigning reading to their students
Strategies for Reading	Strategies teachers and students use in the actual process of reading

The first category identified was Teacher Behavior/Attitude. Students expressed that the ways teachers approach assigned texts encouraged, and in some cases discouraged them to read. In their explanations, some identified specifics, such as the teacher encouraging students to read in general, being enthusiastic about, being familiar with, and creating excitement about the assigned reading. Some students were encouraged to read after instructors revealed intriguing or controversial facts about the texts. Other responses were more vague, including statements such as "the instructor," "the teacher is helpful," or "the teacher is good." Table 17 presents verbatim student participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 17

Supporting Quotations From Student Surveys in the Teacher Behavior/Attitude Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Specific actions and behaviors of teachers that affect the likelihood of student reading	"…having a teacher who is really into the book is also good"
	"…teeling me things that she [the teacher] liked about it [the reading] and leaving me at a cliff hanger…"
	"When they [teachers] are very enthusiastic…they care/know a lot about the book"
	"My teacher's encouragement"
	"My teacher talking about some good books she has read"
	"When my teacher acts like she's actually interested in the book"

The second category identified was Quality/Type of Reading. Many student responses were vague in that they found the most effective strategy in encouraging them to read was provision of "good" reading material, without a further definition of "good." Some students were more descriptive, responding that they preferred reading texts that were nonfiction, were related to teenagers, their interests, or situations with which they had experience, and were easy to understand (not only vocabulary, but themes and concepts as well). Some students replied that they had not received encouragement in their classes to read any types of texts, and a few admitted that they did not care what type of reading was assigned; they simply hated reading and would not enjoy any text.

On the other hand, some students reported an intrinsic love for reading and added that they would read any text that was assigned. Table 18 presents verbatim student participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 18

Supporting Quotations From Student Surveys in the Quality/Type of Reading Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Student-described qualities that are or are not attractive to students in motivating them to read	"well if i like the book and it shares common interests that is usally when ill read"
	"…fun stuff to read thats true facts"
	"Pick novels that have interesting titles"
	"Reading books that relate to us and that we like to read."
	"Making the things we read about teenage life, so we would like and understand it better."
	"reading real life stories"

The third category identified was Ways of Assigning Reading. Procedures for assigning reading were identified as being effective or ineffective by students responding to the open-ended question. Many responses concerned the time allowed for students to read. Some students revealed that they were encouraged to read if the teacher assigned the reading in small sections rather than all at once. A few were encouraged to read if a prize or reward was attached to the reading, while others were motivated to read to get a desirable grade. Some students identified the assessment type attached to the reading as effective in motivating them to read. Assessments identified as motivational were tests,

projects, graded class discussions and seminars, and writings in which students could include their opinions of the texts. Other desirable outcomes identified were the promise of watching the movie version of the reading and playing or creating games connected to the reading. The most often mentioned strategy regarding the way reading is assigned revealed in the analysis was the allowance of student choice in selecting texts to read; many students preferred being presented with a list of options from which they could select readings. Table 19 presents verbatim student participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 19

Supporting Quotations From Student Surveys in the Ways of Assigning Reading Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Procedures teacher use for assigning reading to their students	"Going over the chapters we read for a section helps me remember and analyze the book…"
	"Having an a choice of projects (such as art, writing or other mediums) to do at the end"
	"Knowing that I won't have to take a boring multiple choice test over what I read, and instead, actually having to use what I read to write opinionated papers and the like"
	"if the teacher lets the class decide on what book to read"
	"…rewards and do fun things if we read what is assigned to us."
	"I think the threat of a test motivates me to read the majority of the time."

The fourth category identified was Strategies for Reading. These are the strategies teachers and students use in the process of reading. Ones that were found to effectively motivate students to read included reading aloud in class as a whole group or listening to the teacher read the text. Others included having periodic class discussions, reading groups, and literature circles during reading for students to gauge understanding and address misconceptions. Devoting class time to read was motivational for some, while assigning reading for home was motivational for others. Students revealed that short question packets or study guides to accompany reading was effective, as was participating in related activities during the reading. Table 20 presents verbatim student participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 20

Supporting Quotations from Student Surveys in the Strategies for Reading Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Strategies teachers and students use in the actual process of reading	"…classroom discussions are THE verrryyyy best way for me to understand what i am reading which makes it easier for me to want to continue to read."
	"I love reading outloud in class, I comprehend it much better and when we do read outloud and the teacher explains what we just read helps a lot too."
	"[teacher] had us read parts at a time and we'd have to answer questions about what we read. That seemed to make me read the assignment."
	"To have the teacher read TO us rather than read individually. It makes it more interesting."
	"Reading half the book at home and the other half while listening to a tape in class."

	"High schoolers don't have time to read at home becaues we have sports and jobs we have to plan around and homework adds to that time."

Teacher responses.

Teachers were asked the following question: What strategy or strategies have been most effective in your classes in encouraging your students to read? The process of inductive content analysis was used to code participants' responses to the question. Of the 63 teacher surveys used in the analysis, teacher responses were entered on 27, creating a 43% response rate to the open-ended question. Table 21 contains descriptive statistics for teacher responses.

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics for Teacher Open-Ended Question

Grade	N	Number of Teacher Responses	Subject Area	N	Number of Teacher Responses
9	20	6	English	12	8
10	10	6	Math	12	3
11	8	6	Science	8	5
12	9	3	Social Studies	10	4
More than 1 grade level	16	6	Other	21	8

Responses were systematically placed into categories that were previously identified based on student responses to allow for comparison. As teacher responses were read, if new response did not fit an already defined category, a new one was created. The broad categories are listed in Table 22.

Table 22

Categories of Teacher Open-Ended Question Responses

Category	Description
Teacher Behavior/Attitude	Specific actions and behaviors of teachers that affect the likelihood of student reading
Quality/Type of Reading	Student-described qualities that are or are not attractive to students in motivating them to read
Ways of Assigning Reading	Procedures teacher use for assigning reading to their students
Strategies for Reading	Strategies teachers and students use in the actual process of reading

The first category identified was Teacher Behavior/Attitude. Some teacher responses noted that their enthusiasm was an effective motivational strategy. They also noted that creation of an enjoyable classroom atmosphere was effective. Table 23 presents verbatim teacher participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 23

Supporting Quotations from Teacher Surveys in the Teacher Behavior/Attitude Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Specific actions and behaviors of teachers that affect the likelihood of student reading	"My excitement about the book- I always let them know they will be looked as "smart" if they can talk about certain classic literature as well."
	"…have reading marathons…allowed to bring pillow, etc for comfort, served hot chocolate"
	"If I am excited about the material and make it seem interesting to them, that's very motivating; of course, this only works if they already like me."
	"teacher interest"

The second category identified was Quality/Type of Reading. Teacher respondents noted that their students were motivated by the provision of interesting stories. They cited, specifically, topics that were relevant and related to their lives. Also identified were types of reading students would not read. One teacher noted that an entire class of students, minus two or three, revealed that they did not read the required chapters in their textbooks, while another noted students would not read historical texts outside of class. Table 24 presents verbatim teacher participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 24

Supporting Quotations from Teacher Surveys in the Quality/Type of Reading Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Teacher-described qualities that are or are not attractive to students in motivating them to read	"I make sure that I have read them [assigned stories] and make sure they are good stories they will be interested in!"
	"Making the reading relevent to what grade they might attain ."
	"Students in my class enjoy reading current events. We do that daily."
	"Students do not like to read. They will not read historical material outside of class. My students are less motivated than honor students."

The third category identified was Ways of Assigning Reading. Procedures for assigning reading were identified as being effective or ineffective by teachers responding to the open-ended question. Some responses noted in-class time allowed for students to read was motivational, as was the encouragement of outside reading by offering extra credit. Some teachers revealed that they encouraged their students to read in small sections rather than all at once. One responded that students were encouraged to read if a prize or reward was attached to the reading. Assessments attached to assignments identified as motivational were projects, class discussions, literature circles, and seminars. Writing assignments attached to reading assignments that were identified as motivational included reflective writing and journaling. The allowance of student choice

in selection of texts to read was also included. Table 25 presents verbatim teacher participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 25

Supporting Quotations from Teacher Surveys in the Ways of Assigning Reading Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Procedures teacher use for assigning reading to their students	"Reading in class. Discussions after reading a chunk of text to help some catchup on understanding."
	"Discussions can be a motivating factor if students see other students excited about the material. Discussions involving opinions."
	"seminars/reflective writing instead of tests over a novel, literature circles, giving them choice as to what to read for analytical writing"
	"encouraging outside information not in the textbook to be included in student essays"

The fourth category identified was Strategies for Reading. These are the strategies teachers and students use in the process of reading. Reading aloud in class was identified by teachers as being the most effective motivational strategy for reading. Some noted offering extra credit for those who are willing to read aloud. Teachers also revealed that reading aloud to the students by the teacher was effective. Providing audio versions of texts was also identified, as was a review of key concepts, reading questions, and worksheets completed as students read. Table 26 presents verbatim teacher participant comments representative of those placed in this category.

Table 26

Supporting Quotations from Teacher Surveys in the Strategies for Reading Category

Description of Category	Supporting Quotations
Strategies teachers and students use in the actual process of reading	"…using the read aloud technique helps generate interest and encouragement."
	"Not teaching them everything. Requiring them to have to read to be able to complete some type of task."
	"I always assign questions with the reading assignment and use those questions as a springboard for discussion."
	"Most students in my classes are very poor readers and they respond better if I read the material to them as they follow along."

Content analysis in relation to research question 1.

Research Question 1 asks: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read? To address this question using data from the inductive content analysis, the first comparison made was in the response rates of each group. In the student group, 78% of the respondents provided an answer to the open-ended question, while in the teacher group, only 43% provided an answer.

Similar themes were identified by both groups, and frequencies were similar among some identified categories as well. A proportionate number of teachers and

students cited reading aloud in class, both teacher to students and students to students, as effective motivational strategies, and the types of reading materials that were motivational were also described in a similar manner as well. Class discussions and seminars were also identified in similar frequencies in both surveys.

Differences occurred most often in the frequencies of mention of particular strategies. Although strategies such as offering student choice in reading and reading small amounts of text at a time were noted in both surveys, they were listed in a proportionally higher rate among the student respondents than among the teacher respondents. Other strategies with proportionally higher mention among students compared to teachers included offering class time to read, attaching a grade to the reading, and the encouragement/enthusiasm/knowledge of the teacher.

Strategies that were identified by students and not noted in any of the teacher responses included showing movie versions of the texts being assigned, providing visuals and picture books to accompany texts, asking students to perform research about the book or author prior to reading, attaching no assignment to the reading (suggesting reading for pleasure or enrichment), allowing plenty of time to read assignments, playing (or allowing listening to) music during reading, and the inclusion of games and activities related to the reading. Strategies listed among teacher respondents that were absent from student responses were attaching reflective writing and journaling to reading assignments and not teaching students all the facts, but rather leaving some important facts to be discovered from independent reading of the assigned texts.

Another striking difference occurred among the respondents from both groups regarding students' attitude toward reading. In both groups, a proportionally similar number of responses noted that some students do not like to read and would likely not be motivated to read by any strategy applied. A representational student response decrying this sentiment was, "if i want to read it, i will, if not, good luck." A similar teacher response was, "They hate to read. When discussing grades after the 1st 9 weeks, I asked students to be honest and raise their hands if they did not read the chapters for the all the units studied. All but 2-3 hands went up out of 30 students." However, although no mention is made among the teacher respondents about those who will read without the application of some motivational strategy, a substantial number of students (more than three times the number of students who replied they did not like to read) commented that they would read texts simply because they were assigned. Representative quotations include, "just tell me to read them," "I really don't have strategies because I like to read," "I read any way, it doesn't matter," "telling me to read," "N/A. I don't need to be encouraged," "Just to read. It's fun," "None really, I love to read and have always read everything I was assigned," and "My enjoyment of reading."

Connection of content analysis and quantitative analysis in relation to research question 1.

The results of the inductive content analysis seem to validate some of the quantitative findings regarding differences between students and teachers regarding motivation strategies and practices. A large mean difference was demonstrated in regard to Item 26: I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal

connection with or learn a lesson from the reading. The qualitative data demonstrate that difference in perceptions as well. It appears that teachers underestimated their students' willingness to complete assignments simply because they were assigned. Both analyses indicated that many students did not consider reading as a waste of their time, but that teachers assumed they did.

Similarly, the content analysis data seem to lend validation to a number of the 14 other strategies and practices in which a significant difference in means was indicated by quantitative analysis. Teachers indicated that student self-perception as readers had an effect on the likelihood of their reading assigned texts, that if the texts were not interesting or personally meaningful they would not read them, and that they would be more likely to read when a reward was attached; the qualitative data illustrate the same patterns of response, lending validation to the conclusions.

Another important distinction between the two groups concerned Item 19: I enjoy silent sustained reading and Item 17: It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached. In *t* tests, these items had, respectively, the fourth and fifth highest divergence between teacher and student groups, and in both circumstances, the student means were significantly higher than the teacher means. Providing support for these findings was the mention in the open-ended question from several students that reading with no test or assignment attached was motivational, as was the provision of class time to read while no similar comments were made among the teacher group in the open-ended responses.

Content analysis in relation to research questions 2 and 3.

Research Question 2 asks: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers? Research Question 3 asks: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading? To address these questions utilizing inductive content analysis, students were first divided into groups based on their self-reported value for reading and efficacy as readers. Table 15 displays descriptive statistics for those groupings.

Responses for each group were coded and categorized. Because Group 2 (HV-LE) was so small (n = 10) and only six responses were noted, there were no responses that were represented by all four groups; however, there were some themes present in the remaining three groups. Those included having the teacher read aloud to students, being provided with interesting and understandable reading material, and the devotion of class time to reading.

Differences occurred among each group. Content analysis of Group 2 (HV-LE) revealed that reading the back of the book was motivational, as were English classes in general. The most frequent theme among this group, however, was there were no effective strategies to motivate them to read. Group 3 (LV-HE) respondents noted that only being assigned one book at a time, having class discussions, attaching reading to a grade, being told to, having a caring teacher, assigning the reading in small portions, and

choice in selection of texts were effective motivational strategies. The most frequently noted response, however, was that no strategies were effective in motivating them to read. Group 4 (LV-LE) respondents reported motivational strategies that were effective were having adequate time, being "forced" to read, no talking while reading silently in class, and rewards. Two students noted that they did not like to read, but since only twelve responses were included in this group, it is noteworthy; the other response that garnered two responses was having the teacher read aloud to them. Groups 3 and 4 also had two similarities that were not cited in the other groups: provision of pictures and picture books and being allowed to listen to music while reading.

Connection of content analysis and quantitative analysis in relation to research question 2 and 3.

ANOVA and Tukey post hoc testing indicated that significant differences occurred among groups in 22 of the 27 strategies listed in the survey. More differences were indicated between Group 1 (HV-HE) and Group 3 (LV-HE) than any other combination. On 17 items, differences were noted between the two groups. Review of items demonstrating significant differences and comparing them with the open-ended responses in Group 3, it is revealed that many of the themes were not included in student responses of Group 3 participants, including the importance of teacher enthusiasm, literature circles, reading comprehension strategies, rewards for reading, projects attached to assignments, books recommended by friends, a wide variety of text types, being surveyed by the teacher, reading for pleasure, silent sustained reading, belief that it is the teacher's job to provide motivation, and liking the teacher. Content analysis reveals the

absence of responses related to these items by students in Group 3 and lends support to the quantitative results.

Other Findings

Because one of the purposes of this study was to determine what strategies and practices were motivational for particular groupings of students, Table 27 lists the strategies and practices that each group found most motivational. The items are ranked with the highest mean score listed first, the next highest listed next, and so on. Items in this table could be of practical use to teachers who discover they have a dominance of a particular group of student in a classroom or to inform them about the combinations of strategies and practices that might be most effective to a mixed population of students.

Table 27

Top Five Motivational Strategies and Practices Ranked According to Group

Item	Group 1 (HV-HE)	Item	Group 2 (HV-LE)
4	Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.	16	Being surveyed by my teachers to determine my personal interests has an effect on my likelihood of reading course content.
17	It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached.	22	If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them.
2	I am more likely to read when the teacher is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.	25	I am more likely to read assignments for class if I think that my instructor cares about me than if I think my instructor does not care about me.
14	I am inspired to read something when it is recommended to me by a friend.	2	I am more likely to read when the teacher is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.
15	It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc.	7	Being assigned a project (artwork, demonstration, presentation, etc.) connected to assigned reading makes me more likely to read that assignment if the project is in addition to or instead of a traditional pen and paper test.

Item	Group 3 (LV-HE)	Item	Group 4 (LV-LE)
4	Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.	26	I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading.
22	If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them.	22	If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them.
10	I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material assigned than if there were no test.	4	Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.
18	I prefer reading assessments that ask multiple-choice or true/false questions about what happened in the reading instead of questions that ask me to explain my understanding of the reading.	6	I am more likely to read assigned material for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached.
6	I am more likely to read assigned material	18	I prefer reading assessments that ask

	for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached.	multiple-choice or true/false questions about what happened in the reading instead of questions that ask me to explain my understanding of the reading.

Conclusion

This chapter presented both quantitative and qualitative results of the study regarding motivation for high school students to read. Descriptive statistics for each testing group were revealed, as were the results of *t* tests and ANOVA tests. The process of content analysis was used to organize qualitative data, and connections between that data and the quantitative data were made. Results were used to address the three research questions driving the study. Finally, a list of the most effective strategies and practices was compiled for each group of students identified in the study. This data can be used to inform teachers of motivational strategies and drive instruction in their classrooms. In addition, data from this study can be utilized in the creation of professional development for teachers, providing them with specific areas of need to better understand the perceptions of their students, particularly in comparison to their own perceptions regarding motivation to read.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

The focus of this study concerned strategies and practices that motivated high school students to read. Many ninth- through twelfth-graders are reluctant to read because they do not value reading and/or they perceive themselves as poor readers, but because high school teachers' pre-service education primarily focuses on content-area instruction, they have often received little, if any, instruction that focused on explicit, directed reading strategies to provide to their students. These high school content teachers are often unaware that the implementation of specific and purposeful motivational strategies can be utilized to encourage students to read in their subject areas.

Although research has been conducted to determine what motivates students to read, this study was significant because the vast majority of the literature has focused on elementary- and middle-grade students. Few have studied a high school population of students, and even fewer have compared student and teacher perceptions of what strategies are motivational. A disparity in teacher and student perceptions demonstrates an issue that should be addressed in order to inform instructors in their delivery and practice regarding motivational strategies to read. When teachers do not employ motivational strategies, they miss an opportunity to engage students in reading, ultimately contributing to the decreasing rates of literacy in the nation's high schools (National Council of Teachers of English, 2007). The results of this study comparing high school teacher and student perceptions regarding motivation to read have provided a much-needed perspective that will benefit both populations. In addition, this information can be used to develop professional development training that will inform teachers not only

in which areas disparities exist between teacher and student perceptions, but how to work to decrease those disparities.

The research questions guiding this study were:

Research Question 1: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read?

Research Question 2: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers?

Research Question 3 asks: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading?

Discussion of Findings

Data from both qualitative and quantitative analyses demonstrated that in fact there were differences in motivation to read both between high school teachers and their students and among the four designated groups of students. High school teachers are content-specific instructors who approach the teaching of reading very differently than their elementary school counterparts. When students reach adolescence, reading is no longer a decoding process, but rather a thinking process which requires a specific set of specialized skills (Franzak, 2006; Moore et al., 1999). High school teachers have often

not been taught specific reading strategies to deliver to their students; however, by employing the expectancy theory of motivation (creating tasks that students feel they can achieve and that they value), teachers can increase the likelihood of their students' reading for their classes (Wang, 2004). Expectancy theory maintains that "the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectancy that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome) and on the value or attractiveness (or valence) of that consequence to the individual" (Lawler, 1994, p. 57). Although extensively applied in work situations, expectancy theory has not been formally utilized and studied as often in educational settings; however, because it focuses on perceptions of ability and what people value, which can be ascertained by survey, observation, and collection of data in the classroom, it is appropriate for use among a school population. Fisher et al. (2009) note that various studies by Guthrie and Wigfield, widely noted for their research regarding student motivation to read, define motivation connected to reading as the extent to which a text aligns with the goals of the reader, whether intrinsic or extrinsic. This represents the valence in expectancy theory. Fisher et al. (2009) go on to assert that "motivation is associated with self-efficacy, the sense that one is sufficiently challenged yet not overwhelmed by the difficulty of the task" (p. 30). This represents the expectancy that the outcome, successfully reading of a text, can realistically be achieved. If high school instructors can determine what consequences their students find most attractive and provide reading tasks that are appropriately linked to readers' self-efficacy, they have the potential to strengthen the tendency of their students to act in a certain

way—in this case, to potentially become engaged readers of the texts assigned in their courses.

Because high school classrooms are made up of a variety of learners—some who believe they are proficient readers, some who do not, some who value reading and its effects, and some who do not—secondary education instructors can benefit from a differentiation of strategies based on student self-perceptions. This study revealed significant differences among each of these groups of students and examined the strategies that were preferred by each group, providing instructors with important information that could be immediately implemented into their curricula.

Perhaps most surprising in this study is not that differences exist, but the actual number of differences that were identified, both between students and teachers and among groups of students with other groups of students. Since each of the 27 strategies and practices listed in the survey had been developed from current literature and empirical studies, it has been demonstrated that they can all be effective in motivating students to read. The central insight to be gained from this study is the importance of matching the appropriate strategies and practices with a particular student group. There is no one strategy that will motivate an entire high school class of students to read unless that class is made up of a homogenous group of students with similar self-perceptions regarding their reading abilities and the value they place upon reading.

Implications relating to teachers and their students.

Significant differences between the mean scores of teachers and students were revealed in 15 of the 27 (56%) strategies and practices included in the study. In all cases

but three, teacher means were higher than student means. These results are disturbing because they are a measure of a population of students against their own teachers—not a measure of a general consensus of high school students and teachers from across the country. These teachers teach these students, and the fact that their perceptions regarding what is motivational differ so widely is an issue that demands attention. The motivation for performing this study developed from reading the results of a study by Kasten and Wilfong (2005) in which a particular treatment was employed to motivate middle school students to read. Teachers and students were surveyed regarding student perceptions of independent reading before the treatment occurred. Scores measuring student participants' favorable attitudes were reported at 3.2%, while teachers' perceptions of their students' favorable attitudes were reported at 98%. Disparities such as these are distressing, and can possibly partially account for the decline in reading proficiency currently measured among United States high school students (NCTE, 2007).

Among the most revealing results of the current study is that teachers seem to have underestimated their students' willingness to read. One of the highest mean differences between the teacher and student groups (.85 difference) was the item that indicated students considered reading "a waste of time unless they could make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading." Teachers may have responded so highly in the positive because they were aware of research that demonstrated the value students placed on reading assignments influenced their likelihood of completing the reading assignments (Bandura et al., 1996; Schunk &

Zimmerman, 2007). Another study by Brozo and Flynt (2008) reported that a large majority of students did not enjoy reading that was assigned to them.

An alternate explanation for the large difference could be that teacher responses reflected personal experience, indicating past problems with the assigning of reading to their students; it could be that the motivational strategies utilized by those teachers did not match the needs of their student populations. Providing explanation for the differences in means, student responses to the open-ended question asking what strategy or practice was most motivational revealed that many students read simply because it was assigned, while teachers felt strongly that students would not read simply because it was assigned reading.

The teacher means were higher than the student means on all of the items except three. Among those three were two that dealt with reading for pleasure and silent sustained reading, and one that dealt with class discussion versus traditional pen and paper assessments. The results indicated that teachers again underestimated the students' desire to have class time devoted to reading to themselves and time to read merely for the enjoyment of reading. Studies such as Oddfather and Dahl's (1994) found as students progress through years of school, their intrinsic motivation to read decreases; therefore, by the time they reach high school, many have lost that motivation. Because results of studies such as theirs and others that have demonstrated that many students do not enjoy reading (Brozo & Flynt, 2008), the teachers' responses are not surprising. Teachers also did not believe their students would read to prepare for class seminars or discussions, but rather the threat of a test would make them more likely to read. Because these

differences were among the largest in the study, again it is likely that the teachers who participated in the study had not had a large number of students who responded to these strategies in the past. Each of these activities, reading silently in class and directed class discussion, requires students to sit quietly for period of time, and it is possible that the populations of students these teachers had experienced in the past had not handled quiet time in a way that was acceptable to them.

Implications relating to groups of students.

Significant differences among the means of students in four groups were revealed in an astounding 22 of the 27 (81%) strategies and practices listed on the survey. Clearly, a one-size-fits-all approach to reading motivation is not effective. Table 27 provides results that could be useful to teachers as they construct their reading assignments for their students. The table includes the top five strategies and practices that were found to be motivational for each of the identified groups of students. Two strategies ranked among the top five in three of the four groups. One was having a choice regarding the book or text students would read. Granting autonomy has been proven beneficial in motivating students to read in previous studies as well, including studies by Edmunds and Bauserman (2006) and White and Kim (2008) among elementary-aged students. The findings from this study seem consistent with those of previous ones and indicate that they hold true for a high school population as well.

The other strategy present in three of the four lists was that students would be unlikely to read unless the assignment interested them. Providing students with high-interest reading has long been a strategy used at all levels of education and has been

specifically studied by Schiefele (1991) in both university students and high school students. His studies provided evidence that interest in specific topics was important in reading comprehension and also motivated readers to venture beyond memorization and recall to drawing inferences, making conclusions, and searching for meaning in texts. Since the strategies of creating interest or selecting high-interest texts and offering the option of student choice regarding what to read proved motivational among three of the four student groups, it can be determined that these are crucial practices that should be implemented into high school classrooms to increase the likelihood of reading. Although these practices could be beneficial, teachers would need to become familiar with more texts/books/literature in order to offer choice and accommodate reader interest. Often, teachers teach what they already know; it would take time to locate and read such texts, and then create classroom activities or assessments to accompany them. The time requirement could make this accommodation a less than popular one among many high school teachers, but one that would, according to this study, motivate the majority of students in the school.

Among students placed in Groups 1 (High Value/High Self-Efficacy) and 2 (High Value/Low Self-Efficacy), both indicating a high value for reading, the only common strategy ranking in the top five was that the enthusiasm of the teacher in regard to the content influenced the likelihood that those students would read assigned texts. This finding is consistent with those of Pitcher et al. (2007). In analyzing student responses in the current study to the open-ended question regarding the most motivational strategy, it was apparent that many students were motivated by the actions, excitement, and

knowledge demonstrated by their instructors. The presentation of the text or the framing of the action was an important motivator.

Teacher enthusiasm did not appear on the list for those students who placed a low value on reading. However, among students in Groups 3 (Low Value/High Self-Efficacy) and 4 (Low Value/Low Self-Efficacy), both indicating a low value for reading, the top five ranking strategies were very consistent. Appearing on both lists were indications that students held a favorable view of (a) having a choice about what to read and (b) having an interest in the reading assignments (as previously mentioned), (c) being administered an objective (multiple-choice or true/false) test over the reading rather than questions asking them to explain their understandings of the text, and (d) being rewarded or given a prize for reading. These findings were consistent with the comments made by students in response to the open-ended question and used in the content analysis. Those who perceive their abilities to read as poor do not wish to attempt to provide their understanding of a text, fearing their understanding will be incorrect. Those who do not value reading intrinsically prefer the extrinsic motivation of a prize or reward, as demonstrated by Guthrie et al., 2006 and Mucherah, 2008.

Among the most important findings produced by the study is the large number of differences in the motivational strategies each group of students prefer. The content analysis revealed that even within groups, perceptions regarding strategies and practices differed. Therefore, based on the findings of this study it is recommended that teachers survey their students to determine what strategies and practices they will find motivational or employ a combination of strategies, including those reported and

referenced in this study in order to accommodate the diverse learners in the typical high school classroom.

Conclusions

Research Question 1 asked: Are there differences in perception between high school students and their teachers regarding strategies and practices that motivate high school students to read? The study indicated that there were significant differences in perceptions between the students and their teachers. Teachers in the study underestimated their students' willingness to read simply because the reading was assigned. Many teachers felt that reading needed to be personally meaningful to the students or they would not read it. The implications of this misunderstanding are troubling. As indicated in the open-ended responses, many teachers did not assign reading because they contended that their students simply would not read it. They had resigned themselves to the (perceived) fact that their students would only read what they wanted to read or nothing at all, so it was useless to assign texts that would augment their curricula.

The fact that teachers believed their students did not value silent sustained reading or reading for pleasure is also a concern. Many students who enjoy reading are heavily involved in extracurricular activities and could benefit from class time to read. Those who do not particularly enjoy reading could become engaged in a book if class time were offered as they would witness others reading (ideally including the modeling of their teachers), may discover books that interest them by noting what their classmates are reading, and may read simply because no other activity is allowed during that time. In

addition, a large number of high school students, particularly upper classmen, work part time jobs after school, and if not provided time and encouragement to read in class, they may lack the time and receive no encouragement to read at all.

Research Question 2 asked: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing high self-efficacy as readers and high school students who self-identify as possessing low self-efficacy as readers? The number of students who reported self-efficacy as readers in the low category was very small—only 29 out of 408. This small number (7%) is not surprising as the survey was voluntary, and it could be reasoned that students who were not confident readers did not see the necessity of engaging in such a survey. It could also be conjectured that students who actually were very poor readers did not understand some of the wording of the survey and did not complete it as 444 students began the survey and 408 completed it. Those who are less competent readers usually read at a slower pace than more competent readers, and it could be the case that teachers did not allow enough time for those students to complete the survey.

Of those who did respond to the survey and indicated they had low self-efficacy as readers, differences with students reporting high self-efficacy as readers were present. Two practices in which differences occurred seemed self-explanatory: those who perceive themselves as poor readers reported they would be more likely to read long assignments when assigned in chapters or chunks and that it was important they be allowed adequate time to complete reading. Another item that could be expected in this category is that the threat of a test was a motivator for them to read. Other differences

were not necessarily expected. Those reporting low self-efficacy responded that they would be inspired to read based on recommendations from friends. Based on responses to the open-ended question (the issue of being "forced" to read by their teachers), it may be that students who answered this question in the affirmative meant they would rather read the books their friends read than those recommended by an instructor. These students also noted the importance of the provision of a wide variety of reading opportunities in various formats, an indication that traditional assignments were not adequate to motivate them. Also, the mean scores were higher among this group in response to the statement that it is part of the teacher's job to provide motivation to read. These students may be equating the provision of motivation with reading strategies, as one response noted the most motivational strategy was "English class."

Research Question 3 asked: Are there differences in strategies and practices that high school students find motivational between high school students who self-identify as possessing a high value for reading and high school students who self-identify as possessing a low value for reading? More variation occurred in the survey based on student value for reading rather than their perceived efficacy as readers. Glaring differences between the groups included the effectiveness of providing rewards or prizes for reading; those who valued reading little would be motivated by these, while those with an intrinsic value for reading would not. According to the qualitative data, some students valued a high grade, while others valued lessons that might be gained. Some valued the process, while others valued pizza or candy. Still others valued the recognition of having read the most or the fastest. Therefore, these results suggest that

offering prizes is only effective for a portion of the class and only effective if the proper incentive is provided.

The other portion of the class, those who placed a high value on reading, responded to teacher enthusiasm about reading and their perception that the teacher cared about them. Related items that revealed differences between the groups were that students who valued reading would be more likely to read if they liked the instructor than if they did not and that being surveyed regarding personal interests affected the likelihood of reading assignments more than those who reported a low value for reading. Qualitative analysis revealed that many students who reported highly valuing reading were motivated by an impassioned introduction of the reading or a well-set up cliffhanger delivered by the instructor. They also appreciated the knowledge, encouragement, and "helpful[ness]" of the instructor. These practices were not highly ranked among those who placed a low value on reading. Because it is extremely unlikely that high school classrooms would contain exclusively one group of learner, teachers need to understand that a combination of strategies such as offering rewards and practices such as displaying enthusiasm are required to motivate all learners to read in their classrooms.

Limitations

Limitations of this study included issues with sample sizes of some student groups and the generalizability of the results. The first limitation was that the sample sizes of three of the four groups of students were very small in comparison with the fourth group. Group 1 (High Value/High Self-Efficacy) included 330 students, Group 2 (High Value/Low Self-Efficacy) had only 10 students, Group 3 (Low Value/High Self-Efficacy)

included 49 students, and Group 4 (Low Value/Low Efficacy) contained only 19 students. Since the survey was voluntary, it makes sense that more students who valued reading and felt confident in reading would volunteer to take a reading survey.

This survey was administered only once rather than repeated over time, which could provide further validation of the results. The timing of the survey was nearly 3/4 into the first semester of a 4 X 4 block schedule. At the time the survey was taken, students still had nearly five weeks of instruction left in the semester, and underclassmen, particularly, could possibly have not yet experienced the use of some of the listed strategies and practices in a high school classroom. This timing could have affected their responses. The experiences of seniors as compared to those of freshmen would certainly be more diverse. And since the survey measured perceptions, the less-experienced high school students could potentially have responded based on speculation rather than answering based on actual experiences. The same could be said of teachers; those with fewer years of experience could have been speculating or responding based on very limited experiences.

Another limitation is present in the generalizability of the results of this study. Because it was meant to compare a specific population of students to their teachers, the results are not generalizable to all high school students and teachers. Only one high school was used in the survey, and that high school is a rural school in the southeast with a low rate of student diversity. Also, the high school involved is a one-to-one laptop school—every student is provided with a computer and teachers are charged with integrating technology into their curricula. Students are allowed to use their laptops at

home for homework, including reading, writing, and research, but also for pleasure, such as playing games, music, or videos. Most of their textbooks are loaded on their computers, which eliminates the need for them to bring their texts back and forth to school. Because the use of technology is so pervasive in all classes and relatively few high schools are one-to-one high schools such as this, the generalizability of results is further limited.

Recommendations for Future Research

Although the current study revealed important results that can be used to inform teacher practice and provide focus for professional development training, further research could yield helpful information regarding specific groups of participants. Using demographic data, cluster analysis could be performed, revealing the most motivational strategies according to sex and grade level for students and trends regarding grade level and subject area taught for teachers. Romesburg (2004) describes cluster analysis as a basic method used for finding similarities in data; therefore, it could be utilized if a researcher wished to discover meaningful groupings based on the results of a survey.

Another recommendation for future research involves continuing the current study. If the survey were administered to students in English classes near the end of the second semester, it would have been provided to the entire student population (rather than only the half that were enrolled in English courses the first semester). Surveying the whole population would provide a more complete picture of student perceptions. In addition, the formation of focus groups of students to discuss the survey results and allow them to more fully explain their responses would provide insight, further developing the

qualitative portion of the study.

It is also recommended that focus groups of teachers be convened in order to allow them to more fully expand upon their perceptions of what motivates students to read. After sharing the results of the study with the teachers, they could brainstorm practical ways to meet the needs of their students. Groups could be created, ideally with representation of all content areas, with each group assigned to research a particular strategy that students reported as being motivational and then present their findings to the whole faculty at a follow-up meeting. Research-based modules addressing each strategy could be created and lesson plans attached to explain how they would be implemented into a high school classroom. These modules could be available for instructors to access when needed. With each new class of students, teachers could administer this survey, determine which strategies the students report as being most motivational, and then incorporate the appropriate module. Pre- and post-tests can be administered to measure both student perceptions and reading abilities to determine if gains had been made after implementation of the strategy. Administrative support would be essential in providing professional development time and communicating the expectation that all staff is to take part in the project.

The school in which the study took place administers standardized tests every year that are reportable to the public. In addition to the state accountability tests, students' ACT scores are factored in to those reported results. The ACT is comprised of four sections, all of which require reading skills--even the math portion includes word problems. (The test also includes a writing option; however, it is not required nor

factored into accountability scores by the public high schools in the state.). Teachers, administrators, and students, therefore, have an incentive in increasing literacy rates. Teachers and administrators want their students to score well because they are judged based on these scores, which are published and compared with others across the state. If schools perform poorly, they could be placed on an intervention plan and ultimately lose funding based on falling enrollment. Students want to score well because they want to be accepted to the college of their choice without the requirement of remedial courses they must pay for but do not count toward their degree programs. They also receive scholarship money from the state for attending an in-state college and can be considered for substantial scholarships from both in-state and out-of-state colleges based on their ACT scores. Reading is, therefore, recognized as an essential skill by all involved, and so much relies on the teacher. Providing motivation to read is the first step in creating competent readers. Providing the *right* motivation could result in much more—a love for reading that could last a lifetime.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A. Institutional Review Board Approval

WKU

A LEADING AMERICAN UNIVERSITY WITH INTERNATIONAL REACH

HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW BOARD

In future correspondence, please refer to HS11-008, September 29, 2010

Angela Gunter
c/o Dr. Marge Maxwell
School of Teacher Education
WKU

Angela Gunter:

Your research project, *Motivation for High School Students to Read: Do Teachers Perceive What Their Student Believe?*, was reviewed by the HSRB and it has been determined that risks to subjects are: (1) minimized and reasonable; and that (2) research procedures are consistent with a sound research design and do not expose the subjects to unnecessary risk. Reviewers determined that: (1) benefits to subjects are considered along with the importance of the topic and that outcomes are reasonable; (2) selection of subjects is equitable; and (3) the purposes of the research and the research setting is amenable to subjects' welfare and producing desired outcomes; that indications of coercion or prejudice are absent, and that participation is clearly voluntary.

1. In addition, the IRB found that you need to orient participants as follows: (1) signed informed consent is not required; (2) Provision is made for collecting, using and storing data in a manner that protects the safety and privacy of the subjects and the confidentiality of the data. (3) Appropriate safeguards are included to protect the rights and welfare of the subjects.

   This project is therefore approved at the Full Board Review Level until May 31, 2011.

2. Please note that the institution is not responsible for any actions regarding this protocol before approval. If you expand the project at a later date to use other instruments please re-apply. Copies of your request for human subjects review, your application, and this approval, are maintained in the Office of Sponsored Programs at the above address. Please report any changes to this approved protocol to this office. A Continuing Review protocol will be sent to you in the future to determine the status of the project. Also, please use the stamped approval forms to assure participants of compliance with The Office of Human Research Protections regulations.

Sincerely,

Paul J. Mooney, M.S.T.M.
Compliance Coordinator
Office of Sponsored Programs
Western Kentucky University

cc: HS file number Gunter HS11-008

HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW BOARD WKU APPROVED

HSRB APPLICATION # 11-008
APPROVED 9/29/10 to 5/31/11
EXEMPT EXPEDITED FULL BOARD
DATE APPROVED 9/29/10

Appendix B. Theoretical Basis for Survey Items

Item Number	Item Text	Research Connections
3	I am more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test.	Oddfather and Dahl (1994) found that as students progress through the educational process, intrinsic motivation to read decreases. Their research suggests that one of the reasons for this decline is that as students move from the self-contained, student-centered settings of primary school to environments with interaction among more students and a mostly teacher-centered setting, their opportunities for self-expression and working one-on-one with instructors decreases. "Instruction should center around learners…active, inquiry-based activities engage reluctant academic readers" (NCTE Policy Research Brief, 2007, p. 3)
4	I am more likely to read when the teacher is enthusiastic about the content of the assignment.	The significance and utility placed on reading assignments influences student behavior, and the value placed on learning activities has been related to achievement (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Gian Vittorio, & Pastorelli, 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007). When adolescents are assigned what is considered traditionally academic reading, they are strongly influenced by teacher modeling of comprehension strategies. The enthusiasm of teachers also impact student motivation to read (Pitcher et al., 2007).
5	I am excited to read if assigned to participate in literature circles/structured discussions of books/texts/reading materials in small groups.	Oddfather and Dahl (1994) found that as students progress through the educational process, intrinsic motivation to read decreases. Their research suggests that one of the reasons for this decline is that as students move from the self-contained, student-centered settings of primary school to environments with interaction among more students and a mostly teacher-centered setting, their opportunities for self-expression and working one-on-one with instructors decreases.
6	Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.	Allowing students to choose their own texts positively influenced reading motivation, as did the provision of various genres and subject matter in order to appeal to their personal interests, particularly in the area of narrative texts (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). Building on their previous studies regarding the fostering of motivation to read among student groups in 2004, Guthrie et al. attempted to identify a relationship of specific teacher strategies that motivated students and led to an increase in reading comprehension. Noting the growth in the body of literature since their previous study, the researchers

		consulted meta-analyses, books, and qualitative studies, concluding that seven instructional strategies had proven most successful: (1) using content goals to expand student interest, (2) providing students with choices, (3) providing reading with interesting properties (appealing format), (4) providing opportunity for cooperative learning and socialization, (5) becoming involved as a teacher so students understand he or she cares about student success, (6) praising and providing extrinsic rewards and recognition, and (7) emphasizing mastery goals (Guthrie et al., 2006). Findings demonstrated that at all levels of instruction, family members, peers, and the ways teachers engage students in reading was an important factor in motivation, as was the provision of student choice regarding texts (Pitcher et al., 2007).
7	When my teacher demonstrates specific strategies for reading comprehension, I am more likely to read than when specific strategies are not demonstrated.	Many secondary level content teachers expect that students have already mastered advanced reading strategies and interpretive skills and assume they will employ those strategies and skills without the content teacher's overt instruction of how to do so (Eckert, 2008). Academic content area teachers do not always believe that the teaching of reading to their high school students is within the realm of their responsibilities, instead assuming that the teaching of reading falls to the English department (Hall, 2005) As adolescents transition to content- or discipline-specific learning, often teaching literacy strategies unique to the content or format are necessary, but rarely explicitly taught (Lapp, Flood, & Farnan, 2004; Sturtevant & Linek, 2003). Because of the increase in volume and complexity of the content being introduced, the integration of reading strategy instruction is not the focus of secondary content teachers who find themselves strapped for time to cover their content (Eckert, 2008). When adolescents are assigned what is considered traditionally academic reading, they are strongly influenced by teacher modeling of comprehension strategies. The enthusiasm of teachers also impact student motivation to read (Pitcher et al., 2007).
8	I am more likely to read assigned materials for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if not prize is attached.	Wigfield (1997) concluded that there are a variety of reading motives that can influence engagement and performance including reading curiosity, involvement, importance, recognition, and other extrinsic motivations. These motives are obviously not all intrinsic, not specific only to reading, and they can be adapted to any subject area curriculum at

		any level, including high school. Building on their previous studies regarding the fostering of motivation to read among student groups in 2004, Guthrie et al. attempted to identify a relationship of specific teacher strategies that motivated students and led to an increase in reading comprehension. Noting the growth in the body of literature since their previous study, the researchers consulted meta-analyses, books, and qualitative studies, concluding that seven instructional strategies had proven most successful: (1) using content goals to expand student interest, (2) providing students with choices, (3) providing reading with interesting properties (appealing format), (4) providing opportunity for cooperative learning and socialization, (5) becoming involved as a teacher so students understand he or she cares about student success, (6) praising and providing extrinsic rewards and recognition, and (7) emphasizing mastery goals (Guthrie et al., 2006). MANOVA and regression analyses of the MRQ and ISTEP cut scores concluded that particular areas of motivation and amount of reading in which students engage were strong predictors of academic achievement, with the strongest connections in the areas of recognition and competition, followed closely by challenge and aesthetics as well as challenge and efficacy. Other statistically significant correlations were established between challenge and curiosity and recognition and importance of reading (Mucherah, 2008).
9	Being assigned a project (artwork, demonstration, presentation, etc.) connected to the assigned reading makes me more likely to read the assignment if the project is in addition to or instead of a traditional pen and paper test.	Oddfather and Dahl (1994) found that as students progress through the educational process, intrinsic motivation to read decreases. Their research suggests that one of the reasons for this decline is that as students move from the self-contained, student-centered settings of primary school to environments with interaction among more students and a mostly teacher-centered setting, their opportunities for self-expression and working one-on-one with instructors decreases. Stimulating tasks increased motivation for reading, which was associated with increased reading comprehension on standardized tests (Guthrie et al., 2006), creating a strong case, at least, for the positive effect of motivation on reading comprehension.
10	I am more likely to read information that related to a course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book.	The nonreader category of student could also include those whose extracurricular literacies have been devalued, ignored, or censored by instructors who deem alternative texts, particularly in electronic formats, as morally suspect, controversial, or distracting from more 'important' coursework, resulting in the near invisibility of those

		students in the classroom (Kim & Monique, 2004). When students are not acknowledged for bringing valuable, multiple-literacy practices into the classroom, even if they are literate in the type of reading that has been traditionally accepted as nonacademic, they may become resistant to school-based literacy and be recognized by instructors as nonreaders (Lenters, 2006; Moje, 2008). Building on their previous studies regarding the fostering of motivation to read among student groups in 2004, Guthrie et al. attempted to identify a relationship of specific teacher strategies that motivated students and led to an increase in reading comprehension. Noting the growth in the body of literature since their previous study, the researchers consulted meta-analyses, books, and qualitative studies, concluding that seven instructional strategies had proven most successful: (1) using content goals to expand student interest, (2) providing students with choices, (3) providing reading with interesting properties (appealing format), (4) providing opportunity for cooperative learning and socialization, (5) becoming involved as a teacher so students understand he or she cares about student success, (6) praising and providing extrinsic rewards and recognition, and (7) emphasizing mastery goals (Guthrie et al., 2006). Allowing students to choose their own texts positively influenced reading motivation, as did the provision of various genres and subject matter in order to appeal to their personal interests, particularly in the area of narrative texts (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). The researchers' recommendations based on their findings suggest the need for content area teachers to be aware that their engagement of students in those multiple literacies could present opportunities for motivation and that students appreciate the incorporation of a wide variety of resources, including electronic ones, that relate to their interests (Pitcher et al., 2007).
11	I would be more likely to read an assignment for school if the reading assignment were associated with a formal or informal book club than if it were not.	The teachers and researchers then designed the Book Bistro based on the poetry café model in which students are encouraged to freely discuss literature purely for enjoyment rather than the traditional expectation of accountability for correct answers (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). Student reading was self-selected, discussion was student-led, and interaction was authentic, similar to book discussions that would take place among adult readers. Class focus group interviews took place after each event to discover students' thoughts and reaction to the strategy. Results proved positive, with the teacher reporting that 95% of her students viewed the

		Bistros favorably.
12	I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material assigned than if there were no test.	The teachers and researchers then designed the Book Bistro based on the poetry café model in which students are encouraged to freely discuss literature purely for enjoyment rather than the traditional expectation of accountability for correct answers (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). Class focus group interviews took place after each event to discover students' thoughts and reaction to the strategy. Results proved positive, with the teacher reporting that 95% of her students viewed the Bistros favorably.
13	I prefer nonfiction (true stories/facts/biographies) reading to fiction (made up stories/fantasy) reading when given the choice.	Expository texts (nonfiction) were most motivational when students perceived they could learn new information from them (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). "Females outperformed males in reading engagement…females tended to read long texts (novels, fiction) for enjoyment while males preferred to read shorter texts that were more likely to provide information (e.g.; newspapers, comics, e-mail, and webpages—nonfiction). Based on school reporting, the use of fiction was much more widespread than nonfiction as the source material for teaching reading in nearly every country" (Brozo, Shiel, & Topping, 2007, p. 307-308).
14	My teacher's knowledge of assigned subject matter impacts whether or not I read the assignment.	"Effective teachers model how they access specific content area texts. NCTE recommendations based on outstanding teachers: developing a solid knowledge about and commitment to literacy instruction" (NCTE, 2007, p. 3).
15	Being provided with adequate time to read assigned texts (either in-class or out-of-class time) is the most important factor in determining whether or not I will read the assigned material.	Unless students believe the work is doable, they have little incentive to attempt it (Bandura et al., 1996). This self-efficacy regarding reading abilities has been recognized by researchers as contributing to reading achievement (Lynch, 2002; Nes Ferrara, 2005). "There needs to be an increase in time allocated to personalized reading. Students involved in public examinations (mandatory standardized tests) might feel they have little time for reading anything except material associated with that task (test). Allocating time in a crowded curriculum to personalized reading might seem challenging, but many secondary schools in each of our countries are beginning to contemplate such moves" (Brozo et al., 2007, p. 308).
16	I am inspired to read something when it is recommended to me by a friend.	Findings demonstrated that at all levels of instruction, family members, peers, and the ways teachers engage students in reading was an important factor in motivation, as was the provision of student choice regarding texts (Pitcher et al., 2007).

17	It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc.	The nonreader category of student could also include those whose extracurricular literacies have been devalued, ignored, or censored by instructors who deem alternative texts, particularly in electronic formats, as morally suspect, controversial, or distracting from more 'important' coursework, resulting in the near invisibility of those students in the classroom (Kim & Monique, 2004). When students are not acknowledged for bringing valuable, multiple-literacy practices into the classroom, even if they are literate in the type of reading that has been traditionally accepted as nonacademic, they may become resistant to school-based literacy and be recognized by instructors as nonreaders (Lenters, 2006; Moje, 2008). Building on their previous studies regarding the fostering of motivation to read among student groups in 2004, Guthrie et al. attempted to identify a relationship of specific teacher strategies that motivated students and led to an increase in reading comprehension. Noting the growth in the body of literature since their previous study, the researchers consulted meta-analyses, books, and qualitative studies, concluding that seven instructional strategies had proven most successful: (1) using content goals to expand student interest, (2) providing students with choices, (3) providing reading with interesting properties (appealing format), (4) providing opportunity for cooperative learning and socialization, (5) becoming involved as a teacher so students understand he or she cares about student success, (6) praising and providing extrinsic rewards and recognition, and (7) emphasizing mastery goals (Guthrie et al., 2006). Allowing students to choose their own texts positively influenced reading motivation, as did the provision of various genres and subject matter in order to appeal to their personal interests, particularly in the area of narrative texts (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). The researchers' recommendations based on their findings suggest the need for content area teachers to be aware that their engagement of students in those multiple literacies could present opportunities for motivation and that students appreciate the incorporation of a wide variety of resources, including electronic ones, that relate to their interests (Pitcher et al., 2007). Offering authentic opportunities in school for middle and high school students to engage in reading that they enjoy outside of school can have a profound effect on readers who would be considered at-risk students (Alvermann et al., 2007).

18	Being surveyed by my teachers to determine my personal interests has an effect on my likelihood of reading course content.	Simply surveying students regarding their preferences could advance the perception that their teachers value their input, creating a climate of cooperation (Wang, 2004). Renninger, Hidi, Krapp (1992) reports a strong connection between students' interest in texts and their comprehension of texts. Ainley, Hidi, and Berndorff (2002) found that students' topical interests in texts was related to persistence and learning. Understanding how to motivate students is a crucial skill that high school teachers should aspire to attain. Often, instructors miss opportunities to capitalize on the strengths of those they teach by not tapping in to what excites them. Although it may be time-consuming, numerous connections could be made to all content areas that could spark a genuine interest within students (Guthrie et al., 2000). Allowing students to choose their own texts positively influenced reading motivation, as did the provision of various genres and subject matter in order to appeal to their personal interests, particularly in the area of narrative texts (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). Recommendations of the researchers included not only providing a variety of books for students, but determining the interests of the students at the beginning of the year and creating a customized selection of books based on student preferences (Edmunds & Bauserman, 2006). In order to accommodate what he perceived to be the needs of his students to increase motivation, Cavazos-Kottke (2005) developed a protocol of self-selected reading for his students, with the immediate goal of increasing the amount his students were actually reading. He noted that his requirement for self-defined goals in individual reading contracts developed through conferencing with each student was beneficial in increasing not only volume of reading, but quality and appreciation. Addressing students' individual needs and providing them autonomy yielded the most positive results based on personal interviews with the high school students.
19	It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached.	The teachers and researchers then designed the Book Bistro based on the "poetry café" model in which students are encouraged to freely discuss literature purely for enjoyment rather than the traditional expectation of accountability for "correct" answers (Kasten & Wilfong, 2005). Class focus group interviews took place after each event to discover students' thoughts and reaction to the strategy. Results proved positive, with the teacher reporting that 95% of her

		students viewed the Bistros favorably. "Comparison of test scores with questionnaire responses regarding reading habits and attitudes reveal that engagement is among the most significant aspects of reading achievement. PISA describes the components of engagement in reading as the frequency with which students read a diversity of texts, read for pleasure, and their attitude toward reading in general" (Brozo et al., 2007, p. 306).
20	I prefer reading assessments that ask multiple-choice or true/false questions about what happened in the reading instead of questions that ask me to explain my understanding of the reading.	Oddfather and Dahl (1994) found that as students progress through the educational process, intrinsic motivation to read decreases. Their research suggests that one of the reasons for this decline is that as students move from the self-contained, student-centered settings of primary school to environments with interaction among more students and a mostly teacher-centered setting, their opportunities for self-expression and working one-on-one with instructors decreases. Review of the PISA revealed a concept of literacy that incorporates much more than the traditional notion of simple reading and writing. Fifteen-year-old students, from the United States that would include mostly freshmen, were assessed on their abilities to apply the knowledge and skill they currently possessed to "analyze, reason, and communicate effectively as they pose, solve, and interpret problems in a variety of situations" (Brozo et al, 2007, p. 305). Students were provided with readings in four formats set in contexts they would likely experience: public, private, occupational, and educational. These would include, for example, official documents with charts or graphs, private letters, reports, and academic readings such as those they would be presented with at school. Students were assessed on high orders skills in relating to the texts including locating information to form broader understanding, interpreting to construct meaning, drawing inferences, reflecting on purpose by evaluating content and structure, critically evaluating ideas, and relating text to personal experience or knowledge (Brozo et al, 2007). Researchers point out that the United States placed in the middle of the participating countries with overall average scores.
21	I enjoy silent sustained reading time in class.	Time spent reading was also associated with the gap between good and poor readers, regardless of SES. Indeed, regression analysis showed that much of this disparity was accounted for by differences in the amount of actual reading engagement and not by SES status. "Within secondary schools, it is known that there are few contexts for sustained reading. There needs to be an increase in time allocated to personalized reading. Students involved in public examinations (mandatory standardized tests) might feel they have little time for reading anything except material associated with that task (test). Allocating time in a crowded curriculum to personalized reading might seem challenging, but many secondary schools in each of our countries are

		beginning to contemplate such moves" (Brozo et al., 2007, p. 308).
22	The most important factor in determining if I will read an assignment is if it is personally meaningful and relevant to my life.	The significance and utility placed on reading assignments influences student behavior, and the value placed on learning activities has been related to achievement (Bandura et al., 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007). The study included 110,991 questionnaires intended to measure (in part) student interest in reading and motivation in general from a representative sample of 15-year-old students from 26 countries. Questions were taken from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire There was also an indication that students invested more effort and were especially willing to use control strategies when they were motivated to learn to improve their career prospects (Artelt, 2005). MANOVA and regression analyses of the MRQ and ISTEP cut scores concluded that particular areas of motivation and amount of reading in which students engage were strong predictors of academic achievement, with the strongest connections in the areas of recognition and competition, followed closely by challenge and aesthetics as well as challenge and efficacy. Other statistically significant correlations were established between challenge and curiosity and recognition and importance of reading (Mucherah, 2008). Offering authentic opportunities in school for middle and high school students to engage in reading that they enjoy outside of school can have a profound effect on readers who would be considered at-risk students (Alvermann et al., 2007).
23	It is part of my teacher's job as an instructor to provide motivation for me to want to read assignments for class.	Although the teaching of reading includes some specific strategies that may not have been taught to pre-service teachers in all content areas at all levels, instructors can make great strides in their students' reading by providing the proper motivation (Gambrell, 1996). Reading ability depends largely on students' verbal skills; however, research demonstrates that motivational variables also play a significant role (Aarnoutse & Schellings, 2003; Baker & Wigfield, 1999; Bandura, 2001; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007). Viewing the role as a collaborator in the instructional process, provider of inspiration, and promoter of high expectations for students to learn rather than a mere deliverer of information can transform a teacher into an instructional leader and students into lifelong learners

		capable of and excited about effectively reading interesting and challenging texts (Guthrie, 2008). Understanding how to motivate students is a crucial skill that high school teachers should aspire to attain. Often, instructors miss opportunities to capitalize on the strengths of those they teach by not tapping in to what excites them. Although it may be time-consuming, numerous connections could be made to all content areas that could spark a genuine interest within students (Guthrie et al., 2000). If a student finds the texts they're asked to read unappealing or too difficult and the teaching practices fail to engage, they may avoid reading about important topics in the content areas (Brozo & Flynt, 2008).
24	If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them.	Renninger et al. (1992) reports a strong connection between students' interest in texts and their comprehension of texts. Ainley et al., (2002) found that students' topical interests in texts was related to persistence and learning. Understanding how to motivate students is a crucial skill that high school teachers should aspire to attain. Often, instructors miss opportunities to capitalize on the strengths of those they teach by not tapping in to what excites them. Although it may be time-consuming, numerous connections could be made to all content areas that could spark a genuine interest within students (Guthrie et al., 2000). Offering authentic opportunities in school for middle and high school students to engage in reading that they enjoy outside of school can have a profound effect on readers who would be considered at-risk students (Alvermann et al., 2007). If a student finds the texts they're asked to read unappealing or too difficult and the teaching practices fail to engage, they may avoid reading about important topics in the content areas (Brozo & Flynt, 2008).
25	My perceptions of myself as competent or non-competent reader has an effect on my likelihood of reading assigned materials for class.	Unless students believe the work is doable, they have little incentive to attempt it (Bandura et al., 1996). This self-efficacy regarding reading abilities has been recognized by researchers as contributing to reading achievement (Lynch, 2002; Nes Ferrara, 2005). It is essential for instructors to determine how their students view themselves as readers. According to Jinks and Lorsbach (2003), self-efficacy is regarded as a key area for teachers to investigate in order to seek out ways to meet the needs of their learners.

		Research has found that students who experience high intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy are relatively active readers and high achievers (Guthrie et al., 2000). "A crucial component of people's self-image is the beliefs they have concerning their response capabilities and their value and effectiveness" (Lawler, 1994, p. 69). Quick (1988), Isaac et al. (2001) note the importance of making tasks achievable and assigning work that can be realistically accomplished. MANOVA and regression analyses of the MRQ and ISTEP cut scores concluded that particular areas of motivation and amount of reading in which students engage were strong predictors of academic achievement, with the strongest connections in the areas of recognition and competition, followed closely by challenge and aesthetics as well as challenge and efficacy. Other statistically significant correlations were established between challenge and curiosity and recognition and importance of reading (Mucherah, 2008). If a student finds the texts they're asked to read unappealing or too difficult and the teaching practices fail to engage, they may avoid reading about important topics in the content areas (Brozo & Flynt, 2008). Content teachers can create the conditions for student that are associated with increased perceptions of competence and, consequently, a willingness to sustain effort to be successful (Pintrich & Schunk, 2001).
26	I am more likely to read assignments for class if I like my instructor than if I do not like my instructor.	Student motivation increases when teacher are their allies in the reading and learning process (Guthrie, 2008) "Research-based teacher recommendations: developing quality relationships with students" (NCTE, 2007, p. 3)
27	I am more likely to read assignments for class if I think that my instructor cares about me.	Acknowledging student wishes is also effective in advancing opportunities for two-way communication. Even though those wishes cannot always be met, if a teacher conveys that he or she has heard them and explains the constraints that make them impossible to implement, students will likely perceive the teacher as an ally (Wang, 2004). Viewing the role as a collaborator in the instructional process, provider of inspiration, and promoter of high expectations for students to learn rather than a mere deliverer of information can transform a teacher into an instructional leader and students into lifelong learners capable of and excited about effectively reading interesting

		and challenging texts (Guthrie, 2008). Building on their previous studies regarding the fostering of motivation to read among student groups in 2004, Guthrie et al. attempted to identify a relationship of specific teacher strategies that motivated students and led to an increase in reading comprehension. Noting the growth in the body of literature since their previous study, the researchers consulted meta-analyses, books, and qualitative studies, concluding that seven instructional strategies had proven most successful: (1) using content goals to expand student interest, (2) providing students with choices, (3) providing reading with interesting properties (appealing format), (4) providing opportunity for cooperative learning and socialization, (5) becoming involved as a teacher so students understand he or she cares about student success, (6) praising and providing extrinsic rewards and recognition, and (7) emphasizing mastery goals (Guthrie et al., 2006).
28	I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading.	The significance and utility placed on reading assignments influences student behavior, and the value placed on learning activities has been related to achievement (Bandura, et al., 1996; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007). Based on a national survey in 2005, a large majority of fourth graders in the US reported that reading was not a favorite activity and they did not read for enjoyment, representing a formidable challenge for teachers. The same survey found that most US fourth graders thought they didn't learn much from reading a book (Brozo & Flynt, 2008).
29	I am more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading.	Boys were more motivated to read and achieved higher scores with noncontinuous text. Making available for boys opportunities to use alternative texts as sources of information and pleasure may sustain their interests, build knowledge, and lead to exploring more traditional print materials once their imaginations have been captured. (Brozo et al., 2007).

Appendix C. Student Survey

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

You are being asked to participate in a survey conducted through Western Kentucky University.

This survey will be used to inform teachers and other interested parties what strategies and behaviors motivate high school students to read. The combined results from this survey will be compared to a teacher version of the same survey to determine areas in which students and teachers differ in perceptions regarding student motivation to read.

All responses are anonymous and individual data will be kept confidential.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. There will be no penalty for not taking the survey. Refusal to participate will have no effect on any future services you may be entitled to from the University. If you do not wish to participate in the survey, you may exit now. If you wish to participate, continue with the survey.

Investigator: Angela Gunter angela.gunter@daviess.kyschools.us

Dear Student,

You are being asked to participate in the following survey because you are a high school student and the researcher is interested in motivation for high school students to read. Your input is very valuable. Many studies have been conducted among elementary and middle school students regarding reading, but few studies have been undertaken that involved older students, so your participation is greatly needed and highly appreciated. Be assured that your responses are anonymous and that participation is completely voluntary. The results will provide valuable information.

Thank you for your time.

1. I am a student in

- ☐ ninth grade
- ☐ tenth grade
- ☐ eleventh grade
- ☐ twelfth grade

2. I am a

- ☐ female
- ☐ male

In responding to the following questions, please consider reading you do in ALL of your classes in high school (not ONLY English classes and not in middle or elementary school).

3. I am more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

4. I am more likely to read when the teacher is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

5. I am excited to read if assigned to participate in literature circles/structured discussions of books/texts/reading materials in small groups.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

6. Having a choice over what book(s) or texts I am allowed to read for class makes me more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for me by my teacher.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

7. When my teacher demonstrates specific strategies for reading comprehension, I am more likely to read than when specific strategies are not demonstrated.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

8. I am more likely to read assigned material for my high school classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

9. Being assigned a project (artwork, demonstration, presentation, etc.) connected to assigned reading makes me more likely to read the assignment if the project is in addition to or instead of a traditional pen and paper test.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

10. I am more likely to read information that relates to a course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

11. I would be more likely to read an assignment for school if the reading assignment were associated with a formal or informal book club than if it were not.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

12. I am more likely to read if I know I will be tested over the material assigned than if there were no test.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

In responding to the following questions, please consider reading you do in ALL of your classes in high school (not ONLY English classes and not in middle or elementary school).

13. I prefer nonfiction (true stories/facts/biographies) reading to fiction (made up stories/fantasy) reading when given the choice.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

14. My teacher's knowledge of assigned subject matter impacts whether or not I read the assignment.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

15. Being provided with adequate time to read assigned texts (either in-class or out-of-class time) is the most important factor in determining whether or not I will read the assigned material.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

16. I am inspired to read something when it is recommended to me by a friend.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

17. It is important that my teachers provide me with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

18. Being surveyed by my teachers to determine my personal interests has an effect on my likelihood of reading course content.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

19. It is important to me that I am allowed time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

20. I prefer reading assessments that ask multiple-choice or true/false questions about what happened in the reading instead of questions that ask me to explain my understanding of the reading.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

21. I enjoy silent sustained reading time in class.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

22. The most important factor in determining if I will read an assignment is if it is personally meaningful and relevant to my life.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

23. it is part of my teacher's job as an instructor to provide motivation for me to want to read assignments for class.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

24. If the reading assignments in my classes do not interest me, I am unlikely to read them.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

25. My perception of myself as competent or non-competent reader has an effect on my likelihood of reading assigned materials for class.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

26. I am more likely to read assignments for class if I like my instructor than if I do not like my instructor.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

27. I am more likely to read assignments for class if I think that my instructor cares about me than if I think my instructor does not care about me.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

28. I consider reading a waste of time unless I can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

29. I am more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

30. What strategy or strategies have been most effective in your classes in encouraging you to read?

31. When my teacher asks me questions about what I have read, I

- ◯ can never determine the answers
- ◯ can sometimes determine the answers
- ◯ have trouble determining the answers
- ◯ can always determine the answers

32. Reading a book is something I like to do

- ◯ never
- ◯ sometimes
- ◯ not very often
- ◯ often

33. I read things other than books (online posts, articles, magazines, etc.)

- ◯ never
- ◯ almost every day
- ◯ once in a while
- ◯ every day

34. Reading is

- ◯ very easy for me
- ◯ somewhat difficult for me
- ◯ somewhat easy for me
- ◯ very difficult for me

35. When I come to a word I do not know, I can

- ◯ almost always determine its meaning
- ◯ almost never determine its meaning
- ◯ sometimes determine its meaning
- ◯ never determine its meaning

36. I _____ tell my friends about good books/articles/texts/posts I have read.

- ◯ never
- ◯ sometimes
- ◯ almost never
- ◯ often

37. When I am reading by myself, I understand

- ◯ almost everything I read
- ◯ almost none of what I read
- ◯ some of what I read
- ◯ none of what I read

38. People who read often are

- ◯ very interesting
- ◯ not very interesting
- ◯ interesting
- ◯ boring

39. I am

- ◯ a poor reader
- ◯ a good reader
- ◯ an adequate reader
- ◯ a very good reader

40. As an adult, I will spend

- ◯ none of my time reading
- ◯ some of my time reading
- ◯ very little of my time reading
- ◯ much of my time reading

41. Knowing how to read well is

- ◯ not very important
- ◯ important
- ◯ somewhat important
- ◯ very important

Appendix D. Teacher Survey

INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

You are being asked to participate in a survey conducted through Western Kentucky University.

This survey will be used to inform teachers and other interested parties what strategies and behaviors motivate high school students to read. The combined results from this survey will be compared to a teacher version of the same survey to determine areas in which students and teachers differ in perceptions regarding student motivation to read.

All responses are anonymous and individual data will be kept confidential.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. There will be no penalty for not taking the survey. Refusal to participate will have no effect on any future services you may be entitled to from the University. If you do not wish to participate in the survey, you may exit now. If you wish to participate, continue with the survey.

Investigator: Angela Gunter angela.gunter@daviess.kyschools.us

Dear Teachers,

You are being asked to participate in the following survey because you are a high school teacher and the researcher is interested in teacher and student perceptions of motivation for high school students to read. Your input is very valuable. Many studies have been conducted among elementary and middle school students regarding reading, but few studies have been undertaken that involved older students, and even fewer sought input from their teachers, so your participation is greatly needed and highly appreciated. Be assured that your responses are anonymous and that participation is completely voluntary. It is hoped that the results will provide valuable information.

Thank you for your time.

1. I teach primarily

- ☐ ninth grade
- ☐ tenth grade
- ☐ eleventh grade
- ☐ twelfth grade

2. I teach primarily

- ☐ English/Language Arts classes
- ☐ Math classes
- ☐ Science classes
- ☐ Social Studies classes
- ☐ Other classes

3. Most of my students are more likely to read assigned material to prepare for class seminar/discussion participation than for a traditional pen and paper test.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

4. Most of my students are more likely to read when I am enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

5. Most of my students will be excited to read if assigned to participate in literature circles/structured discussions of books/texts/reading materials in small groups.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

6. Having a choice over what book(s) or texts my students are allowed to read for class makes most of my students more likely to read than if the reading was chosen for them by me.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

7. When I demonstrate specific strategies for reading comprehension, most of my students are more likely to read than if I do not demonstrate specific strategies.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

8. Most of my students are more likely to read assigned material for my classes if there is a prize or reward attached to the completion of the reading (points, recognition, candy, etc.) than if no prize is attached.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

9. Being assigned a project (artwork, demonstration, presentation, etc.) connected to assigned reading makes most of my students more likely to read the assignment if the project is in addition to or instead of a traditional pen and paper test.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

10. My students are more likely to read information that relates to my course if it is delivered in magazines, articles, blogs, other electronic media, etc. than information from the course text book.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

11. Most of my students would be more likely to read if my reading assignment were associated with a formal or informal book club than if it were not.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

12. Most of my students are more likely to read if they know they will be tested over the material assigned than if there were no test.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

13. Most of my students prefer nonfiction (true stories/facts/biographies) reading to fiction (made up stories/fantasy) reading when given the choice.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

14. My knowledge of assigned subject matter impacts whether or not most of my students read the assignment.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

15. Being provided with adequate time to read assigned texts (either in-class or out-of-class) is the most important factor in determining whether or not most of my students will read the assigned material.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

16. Most of my students are inspired to read something when it is recommended to them by a friend.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

17. It is important that I provide students with a wide variety of reading opportunities (and genres) including magazines, articles, graphics, electronic resources, etc.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

18. Being surveyed by me to determine students' personal interests has an effect on my students' likelihood of reading course content.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

19. It is important to most of my students that I allow time for reading for pleasure with no assessment attached.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

20. Most of my students prefer reading assessments that ask multiple-choice or true/false questions about what happened in the reading instead of questions that ask them to explain their understanding of the reading.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

21. Most of my students enjoy silent sustained reading time in class.

○ Strongly Agree ○ Agree ○ Neutral ○ Disagree ○ Strongly Disagree

22. The most important factor in determining if most of my students will read an assignment is if it is personally meaningful and relevant to their lives.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

23. It is part of my job as an instructor to provide motivation for my students to want to read assignments for my class.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

24. If the reading assignments in my class do not interest my students, they are unlikely to read them.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

25. My students' perceptions of themselves as competent or non-competent readers have an effect on their likelihood of reading assigned materials for my class.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

26. Most of my students are more likely to read assignments for class if they like me than if they do not like me.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

27. Most of my students are more likely to read assignments for class if they think I care about them than if they think I do not care about them.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

28. Most of my students consider reading a waste of time unless they can make some personal connection with or learn a lesson from the reading.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

29. Most of my students are more likely to completely read a long assignment, such as a novel, if it is assigned in chapters or chunks rather than having only one due date for the completion of the reading.

◯ Strongly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Neutral ◯ Disagree ◯ Strongly Disagree

30. What strategy or strategies have been most effective in your classes in encouraging your students to read?

Appendix E. Opt-Out Letter for Parents

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR PARENTS

Project Title: Motivation for High School Students to Read: Do Teachers Perceive What Their Student Believe?

Investigator: Angela Gunter, English Department, (270) 852-7300 ext. 135 Email: angela.gunter@daviess.kyschools.us

THE FOLLOWING IS AN OPT-OUT LETTER. PLEASE READ THE ENTIRE LETTER.

Dear Parent,

Your child is being invited to participate in an online survey assessing motivation for high school students to read. He or she will be asked to respond to 40 multiple-choice items and one open-response item designed to determine what strategies and behaviors each find motivational in regards to reading. No grade, reward, or penalty is associated with participation in the survey.

1. **Nature and Purpose of the Project:** The purpose of this survey is to determine strategies and practices high school students find motivational for reading. Teachers will also be provided with the survey so it can be determined what strategies and practices they feel are motivational for high school students to read.

2. **Explanation of Procedures:** Students currently enrolled in English classes will be provided with opt-out letters for their parents to sign. Those students whose parents have not signed the opt-out letter will be provided with a letter of assent and a link to a survey. Teachers will be given a teacher version of the letter of assent and survey.

3. **Discomfort and Risks:** No discomfort or risks are involved.

4. **Benefits:** Results will be analyzed to determine which of the strategies and practices are most motivational for high school students. In addition, the open-ended question will likely yield more motivational strategies. These student results will then be compared to the teacher responses. **Recognizing the gaps in teacher and student perception regarding motivation is necessary before addressing them.**

Information from this study will be presented to the faculty in an in-service format either at the beginning of the 2011-2012 school year and used as professional development.

5. **Confidentiality:** The online survey will yield results that will be confidential; no names will be linked to individual responses. Raw data (survey results) will be kept in a password-protected account obtained through Daviess County Public Schools.

6. **Refusal/Withdrawal:** Refusal to participate in this study will have no effect on any future services you may be entitled to from the University. Anyone who agrees to participate in this study is free to withdraw from the study at any time with no penalty.

You understand also that it is not possible to identify all potential risks in an experimental procedure, and you believe that reasonable safeguards have been taken to minimize both the known and potential but unknown risks.

If you do not wish for your child to participate, please sign below and return to your child's English teacher by _____.

I DO NOT wish for my child, _____, to participate in the motivation to read survey.

_____ _____

Signature Date

THE DATED APPROVAL ON THIS CONSENT FORM INDICATES THAT
THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED AND APPROVED BY
THE WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW BOARD
Paul Mooney, Compliance Coordinator
TELEPHONE: (270) 745-4652

Appendix F. Student Letter of Assent

INFORMED ASSENT DOCUMENT FOR STUDENTS

Project Title: Motivation for High School Students to Read: Do Teachers Perceive What Their Student Believe?

Investigator: Angela Gunter, English Department, (270) 852-7300 ext. 135 Email: angela.gunter@daviess.kyschools.us

Students:

You are being asked to participate in a project conducted through Western Kentucky University. The University requires that you agree to participate in this project.

The investigator will explain to you in detail the purpose of the project, the procedures to be used, and the potential benefits and possible risks of participation. You may ask her any questions you have to help you understand the project. A basic explanation of the project is written below. Please read this explanation and discuss with the researcher any questions you may have.

If you then decide to participate in the project, please click on the link provided below. The link will direct you to the survey. Accessing the link means that you consent to participate in the survey.

1. Nature and Purpose of the Project: The purpose of this survey is to determine strategies and practices high school students find motivational for reading. Teachers will also be provided with the survey so it can be determined what strategies and practices they feel are motivational for high school students to read.

2. Explanation of Procedures: Students currently enrolled in English classes will be provided with opt-out letters for their parents to sign. Those students whose parents have not signed the opt-out letter will be provided with a letter of assent and a link to a survey. Teachers will be given a teacher version of the letter of assent and survey.

3. Discomfort and Risks: No discomfort or risks are involved.

4. Benefits: Results will be analyzed to determine which of the strategies and practices are most motivational for high school students. In addition, the open-ended question will likely yield more motivational strategies. These student results will then be compared to the teacher responses. **Recognizing the gaps in teacher and student perception regarding motivation is necessary before addressing them.**

Information from this study will be presented to the faculty in an in-service format either at the beginning of the 2011-2012 school year and used as professional development.

5. Confidentiality: The online survey will yield results that will be confidential; no names will be linked to individual responses. Raw data (survey results) will be kept in a password-protected account obtained through Daviess County Public Schools.

6. Refusal/Withdrawal: Refusal to participate in this study will have no effect on any future services you may be entitled to from the University. Anyone who agrees to participate in this study is free to withdraw from the study at any time with no penalty.

You understand also that it is not possible to identify all potential risks in an experimental procedure, and you believe that reasonable safeguards have been taken to minimize both the known and potential but unknown risks.

Your Continued Cooperation Implies Your Consent.

If you agree to participate in the study, please click on this link that will take you to the survey for teachers: https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/YJGQMW

THE DATED APPROVAL ON THIS CONSENT FORM INDICATES THAT
THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED AND APPROVED BY
THE WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW BOARD
Paul Mooney, Compliance Coordinator
TELEPHONE: (270) 745-4652

Appendix G. Teacher Letter of Consent

INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT FOR TEACHERS

Project Title: Motivation for High School Students to Read: Do Teachers Perceive What Their Student Believe?

Investigator: Angela Gunter, English Department, (270) 852-7300 ext. 135 Email: angela.gunter@daviess.kyschools.us

Teachers:

You are being asked to participate in a project conducted through Western Kentucky University. The University requires that you agree to participate in this project.

The investigator will explain to you in detail the purpose of the project, the procedures to be used, and the potential benefits and possible risks of participation. You may ask her any questions you have to help you understand the project. A basic explanation of the project is written below. Please read this explanation and discuss with the researcher any questions you may have.

If you then decide to participate in the project, please click on the link provided below. The link will direct you to the survey. Accessing the link means that you consent to participate in the survey.

1. Nature and Purpose of the Project: Much research has been conducted to determine strategies and behaviors that motivate young students to read; however, little research has been conducted regarding motivation to read among older students. The proposed study includes a survey that would be administered to high school students to determine and rate the significance of specific strategies and behaviors that motivate them to read.

There have also been few studies conducted that compare teacher and student perceptions of the effectiveness of motivational strategies and behaviors to read, particularly among a high school population. Therefore, the researcher intends to administer a teacher version of the same survey given to the students and compare the results. Based on the results of prior studies, it is hypothesized that there will be differences between students' and teachers' perceptions of what is motivational for high school students to read.

2. Explanation of Procedures: Students currently enrolled in English classes at all levels will be provided with opt-out letters for their parents to sign. Those students whose parents have not signed the opt-out letter will be provided with a letter of consent and a link to a survey designed to illustrate their perceptions regarding what strategies and behaviors motivate them to read. Teachers will be given a teacher version of the letter of consent and survey.

Example:
Student Item: *I* am more likely to read if *my teacher* is enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.
Teacher Item: *Most of my students* are more likely to read if *I* am enthusiastic about the content or the assignment.

3. Discomfort and Risks: No discomfort or risks are involved.

4. Benefits: Results will be analyzed to determine which of the strategies and behaviors are most motivational for specific categories of high school student (those who have a high value for reading, a low value for reading, have a high self-efficacy, and a low self-efficacy). In addition, the open-ended question will likely yield more motivational strategies. These student results will then be compared to the teacher responses to determine in which areas the student responses and teacher responses are least and most

divergent. Recognizing the gaps in teacher and student perception regarding motivation is necessary before addressing them.

Information from this study will be presented to the faculty in an in-service format either at the beginning of the 2011-2012 school year and used as professional development.

5. Confidentiality: As the online survey will yield results that will be kept confidential; no names will be linked to individual responses. Raw data (survey results) will be kept in a password-protected account obtained through Daviess County Public Schools.

6. Refusal/Withdrawal: Refusal to participate in this study will have no effect on any future services you may be entitled to from the University. Anyone who agrees to participate in this study is free to withdraw from the study at any time with no penalty.

You understand also that it is not possible to identify all potential risks in an experimental procedure, and you believe that reasonable safeguards have been taken to minimize both the known and potential but unknown risks.

Your Continued Cooperation Implies Your Consent.

If you agree to participate in the study, please click on this link that will take you to the survey for teachers: https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/YCKJTC

THE DATED APPROVAL ON THIS CONSENT FORM INDICATES THAT
THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED AND APPROVED BY
THE WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW BOARD
Paul Mooney, Compliance Coordinator
TELEPHONE: (270) 745-4652

Angela D. Gunter

3105 Avenue of the Parks
Owensboro, KY 42303
(270) 952-1691
angela.gunter@daviess.kyschools.us

Education/Certification

Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky
Doctor of Education, Educational Leadership
Teacher Leader Strand, May 2011

Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky
Instructional Computer Technology Endorsement K-12
August 2010

Educational Professional Standards Board
National Board Teacher Certification,
English/Language Arts, Adolescence/Young Adulthood
November 2007

Western Kentucky University, Bowling Green, Kentucky
Masters of Science Library Media Education
December 2005

University of Southern Indiana, Evansville, Indiana
Bachelor of Science in English
Secondary Education Certification/ Middle School Endorsement
December 2002

Henderson Community College, Henderson, Kentucky
Associate of Science Degree
December 1993

Madisonville Health Occupations School, Madisonville, Kentucky
Medical Laboratory Technology Certification
August 1992

Professional Experience

Dean of Liberal Arts and English Department Head,
Daviess County High School, 2010 –Present

English Teacher, Daviess County High School,
January 2003 –Present
Courses: Accelerated English III, Advanced Placement English Language and Composition, College Preparatory English III, College Preparatory English IV, Medical Terminology

Adjunct Instructor, Owensboro Community and Technical College,
August 2009 –Present
Courses: ENG 101: Writing I and ENG 102: Writing III

Secondary School Vice President,
Kentucky Council of Teachers of English,
February 2010 –Present
Coordinator of KCTE Statewide Writing Contest

SAT Essay Scorer, Pearson Educational Measurement
Oct. 2006-present

Reading and Writing Curriculum Coordinator, The Loft@OCTC,
Owensboro Community and Technical College
Summer 2008

Animation Designer, Learning Gurus, Inc.,
May-Aug. 2004 and May-Aug. 2005
Animated web pages for clients

Medical Technologist, Deaconess Hospital, Evansville, Indiana
January 2000- April 2003
Hematology and Chemistry Departments

Laboratory Technologist, Phlebotomist, and Office Nurse,
Dr. W. Allen White, Morganfield, Kentucky
September 1993-January 2000

Laboratory Technologist and Phlebotomist,
Methodist Hospital Union County, Morganfield, Kentucky
October 1990-September 1993

Leadership Activities

Secondary School Vice President of Kentucky Council of Teachers of English/Language Arts, 2010—Present

KTIP Resource Teacher, Education Professional Standards Board, 2009-2010

Fellow of Western Kentucky University Writing Project, a Division of the National Writing Project, Summer 2009

Master Trainer, Collaborative for Teaching and Learning and Kentucky Department of Education, 2007-2009

Poetry Out Loud Recitation Competition Coordinator, Sponsored by the National Endowment for the Arts, 2007-2008

KTIP Resource Teacher, Education Professional Standards Board, 2007-2008

Site-Based Decision Making Council Teacher Representative/ Principal Selection Committee, 2006-2009

Junior Varsity Academic Team, Future Problem Solving Team, and Written Composition Coach and Scorer, 2006-2010

State Writing Advisory Committee/ Scoring Accuracy Assurance Team, 2006-2009

Summer Educational Trip Leader/Chaperone for Students, Teachers and Parents to London, Stratford, Wales, Dublin, Paris, Madrid, and Toledo, Summer 2006 and 2007

National Honor Society Advisor, Daviess County High School Chapter, 2005-Present

Technology eTeam Member, Technology Support for Teachers and Students, 2005-2007

Honors/Awards

Stephanie Kirk Classroom Learning Award
from Kentucky Council of Teachers of English
October 2009

Semi-finalist 2009 Kentucky Teacher of the Year Contest, October 2008

2009 Ashland Inc. Teacher Achievement Award,
Kentucky Department of Education and Ashland Inc.,
September 2008

2008 Kentucky Association of Assessment Coordinators Action Research Grant Award Winner: *Auditory Reading: Using Advancements in Technology to Meet the Needs of the Modern Teen Reader*, June 2008

Daviess County High School's "Teacher of the Year"
May 2008

Daviess County Public Schools Foundation "Focus Award"
Literacy Category, April 2008

"Teacher Who Made a Difference" Award from University of Kentucky, December 2007

Presentations and Publications

Presenter at Daviess County High School Professional Development: *Using Emerging Technologies to Engage Modern Teen Readers and Writers,* August 2010

Presenter for Hart County High School English Department Professional Development: *Incorporating Technology into the English Classroom,* July 2010

Presenter at Western Kentucky University's Library Media Education and Literacy Education Summer Conference: *Using Emerging Technologies to Engage Modern Teen Readers and Writers,* June 2010

Gunter, A. (2010). Auditory reading: Using advancements in technology to meet the needs of the modern teen reader. *Kentucky English Bulletin, 59(2),* 34-38.

Presenter at Kentucky Council of Teachers of English/Language Arts 74th Annual State Conference: *Using Emerging Technologies to Promote Authenticity in Composition,* February 2010

WKU Writing Project Mini-Conference, *Prescriptions for Avoiding and Reviving Lifeless Writing,* November 2009

Presenter at Kentucky Association for Assessment Coordinators Scott Trimble Workshop: *Auditory Reading: Using Advancements in Technology to Meet the Needs of the Modern Teen Reader*, October 2009

Professional Development Presenter for Daviess County High School: *How to use Ning In Your Classroom: An Update on the Traditional Writer's Notebook and Portfolio,* August 2009

CPE Kentucky Conference on the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning: *Meaningful Multimedia Technology Integration to Promote Learner Preparedness,* March 2009

Guest Speaker, Kentucky Arts Council Grant Writing Workshop, September 2008

Conferences and Training

Kentucky Society for Technology in Education, *Spring Technology Conference*, March 2011

Kentucky Council of Teachers of English/Language Arts, *Moving Forward/Looking Back-21st Century Teaching and Learning,* February 2011

ACT Instructional Support Workshop, Green River Regional Educational Cooperative, January 2011

WKU Literacy Workshop, *Shared Responsibility: Growing the Readers We Want*, August 2010

WKU Library Media Education and Literacy Education Summer Conference, June 2010

Kentucky Council of Teachers of English/Language Arts, *Open the Box, 74th Annual State Conference,* February 2010

Kentucky Association for Assessment Coordinators, *Scott Trimble Workshop,* October 2009

Kentucky Association for Academic Competition, *Quick Recall Training,* September 2009

Kentucky Reading Association, *Reading Leads to Proficiency*, September 2009

Western Kentucky University Writing Project, June/July 2009

Kentucky Conference on the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, *Creating Prepared Learners*, May 2009

Kentucky Association for Assessment Coordinators, *Scott Trimble Workshop,* October 2008

Kentucky Association for Academic Competition, *Quick Recall Training,* September 2008

Daviess County Instructional Technology, *Webpage Design*, June 2008

Kentucky Teacher Internship Program, *Teacher Performance Assessment Workshop,* June 2007

Advanced Placement Conference, *Prepare for the AP Course Audit,* January 2007

Site Based Decision Making Council *New Member Training*, September 2006

Advanced Placement Summer Institute, *AP English Language and Composition*, WKU, June 2006

Holt, Rinehart, Winston *Elements of Literature Planner, Test Generator/ Online Essay Scoring*, May 2006

National Board for Professional Teaching Standards *Jump Start Workshop*, May 2006

High Schools That Work, *Summer Conference*, July 2005

Advanced Placement Summer Institute, *AP English Language and Composition*, Las Vegas, June 2005

Daviess County Instructional Technology Academy, July 2004, 2005, 2006

Advanced Placement Summer Institute, *AP English Language and*

Composition, WKU, June 2004

Abell and Atherton Educational Consulting, *New Scorer Portfolio Training*, February 2004

Socratic Seminar Training Workshop, September 2003

Western Kentucky University, *Writing in the Content Area: A Proactive Workshop,* July 2003

Brescia University Literacy Conference, *Celebrating Literacy,* April 2003

Western Kentucky University, *Conferencing with Student Writers Seminar and Workshops*, March 2003

Community Involvement

- Cystic Fibrosis Foundation Walk-a-thons: Event Coordinator Spring 2006,2007, 2008,2009, 2010
- Beading to Beat Autism: Event Coordinator and Participant December 2009
- Water Bottle Recycling Program at DCHS: Coordinator January 2008-January 2010
- Valentine's Day and St. Patrick's Day Parties at Roosevelt House (a local retirement home): Coordinator and Participant, Spring 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011
- Trick-or-Treat Scavenger Hunt Food Drive for the Daniel Pitino Shelter (a local homeless shelter): Coordinator October 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010
- Water PlayPump International for Clean Water in Africa: Coordinator of Cooperative Fundraising Projects with Owensboro Catholic High School, November 2007-May 2008
- St. Jude's Children's Hospital's Write Out Cancer Campaigns: Coordinator and Participant, December 2006, 2007
- Letter Writing Campaign to American Soldiers in Iraq: Coordinator and Participant, December 2007

Professional Associations/Memberships

- International Reading Association
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
- National Council of Teachers of English
- Kentucky Council of Teachers of English: Secondary Schools Vice President; Conference Presenter

- Ohio Valley Council of Teachers of English: High School Collaboration Team
- Kentucky Reading Association
- Kentucky Association for Assessment Coordinators: Conference Presenter
- Kentucky Society for Technology in Education
- Literacy Committee, DCHS: Committee Chairman
- Instruction Committee, DCHS: Secretary
- Curriculum Committee, DCHS
- Technology Committee, DCHS
- Horizons Committee, DCHS